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POST-WAR BRITAIN 1948-49

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LONDON

INTRODUCTORY NOTE

This handbook contains factual and statistical information about the United Kingdom, compiled from official and authoritative sources. It is not intended to be exhaustive, but to provide basic data on the main aspects of the national life which are within the field of Government action.

It is a new and up-to-date version of "Post-War Britain 1946." The information, except where otherwise stated, relates to the summer of 1948. In general, the contents refer to the United Kingdom as a whole, but where separate figures are available for England and Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland, these have also been given if they are such as to be of general interest.

For additional or more detailed information, readers are referred to the Monthly Digest of Statistics issued by the Central Statistical Office and to Reference Division's Basic Information Papers and the weekly Home Affairs Survey. For ease of reference, the arrangement of sections in the handbook is correlated with the regular chapter headings in the Home Affairs Survey.

Reference Division,
Central Office of Information, London.

23rd November, 1948.

THE ROYAL FAMILY

QUEEN VICTORIA, 1819-1901

m. Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha (Prince Consort)

KING EDWARD VII, 1841-1910
m. Pss. Alexandra of Denmark
(QUEEN ALEXANDRA)

KING GEORGE V, 1865-1936
m. Pss. Mary of Teck (QUEEN MARY)

Duke of Windsor, b. 1894
m. Pss. Elizabeth Bowes-Lyon (QUEEN ELIZABETH)
1936, m. Wallis Simpson

Pss. Elizabeth, b. 1926, m. Philip, Duke of Edinburgh
Pr. Charles b. 14.11.46

Earl of Harewood, b. 1923
Hon. Gerald Lascelles, b. 1924

2 brothers and 3 sisters

Henry, Duke of Gloucester, b. 1900, m. Alice Montagu Douglas-Scott
George, Duke of Kent, b. 1902-1942, 1905-1919
m. Pss. Marina of Greece

Edward, Duke of Kent, b. 1935
Pss. Alexandra, b. 1936
Pr. Michael, b. 1942

Pr. William, b. 1941
Pr. Richard, b. 1944

Pss. Alice, 1843-1878
m. Grand Duke Louis of Hesse

Pss. Victoria, b. 1863
m. Marquis of Milford Haven

Pss. Alice, b. 1885, m. Andrew of Greece
Earl Mountbatten, b. 1900, m. Edwina Ashley

Lady Patricia, b. 1924
Lady Pamela, b. 1929

Pr. Philip, Duke of Edinburgh, b. 1921, m. Pss. Elizabeth of U.K.
3 sisters

Order of Succession to the Throne :

Princess Elizabeth and issue
Princess Margaret
Duke of Gloucester
Prince William
Prince Richard
Duke of Kent
Prince Michael
Princess Alexandra
Princess Mary
Earl of Harewood
Hon. Gerald Lascelles

In the Order of Succession the sons of the Sovereign and their descendants have precedence over the daughters. The daughters and their descendants have precedence over lateral lines.

DATES RELATING TO KING GEORGE VI :

Accession to throne : Dec. 11, 1936
Coronation : May 12, 1937
Marriage : April 26, 1923
Official Birthday Celebration : June

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I. ADMINISTRATION

1. CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

(a) Constitution

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is a parliamentary democracy with a limited constitutional monarchy, cabinet government carried on in the name of the King, and a bicameral legislative assembly. Of the King's ancient powers little remains except "the right to be consulted, the right to encourage, the right to warn," and the extent to which these can be used depends, within very circumscribed limits, on the King's own personality and experience.

The Prime Minister and the Cabinet are at the head of the Executive, and the Government is normally formed of the majority party in the House of Commons, and resigns if it can no longer command the confidence of the House.

As the Constitution is unwritten and in a continual state of evolution, the division of constitutional functions is by no means rigid: most legislation is introduced by the Government, and Parliament can, and does, call upon Ministers to account for their actions under that legislation. Ministers may, especially in times of emergency, be given power to make Orders under special Acts, but are limited in their independence by the necessity of conforming to the Government's policy and by parliamentary control of finances.

The Ministers of the Crown (Transfer of Functions) Act, 1946, was mainly designed to provide for still greater flexibility in the allocation of the statutory functions of Ministers and their departments. It is now possible for such functions to be transferred by Order in Council, or for a Department to be dissolved and its functions transferred to another Department.

Some changes have been made in the composition and functions of Departments since August, 1945. The Ministries of Supply and Aircraft Production have been amalgamated, and the Ministry of Production has been merged with the Board of Trade. The Ministry of Information has been abolished, and its functions divided between the Departmental Information Divisions and the Central Office of Information, co-ordination being secured by committees on the ministerial and official level.

Departmental organisation is, on the whole, centralised in London, though certain Departments, notably the Ministry of Food, the Board of Trade, the Ministry of National Insurance, and the Ministry of Labour, have Regional Offices.

Scotland.—The Office of Secretary of State for Scotland is discharged through four main administrative Departments—the Department of Agriculture for Scotland, the Scottish Education Department, the Department of Health for Scotland (including Town and Country Planning), and the Scottish Home Department—exercising functions broadly comparable with the functions exercised in England and Wales by the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Town and Country Planning, and the Home Office.

The Scottish Secretary also exercises through the Scottish Home Department certain functions in relation to the organisation of Courts of Law and judicial appointments—in consultation with the Lord Advocate—as well as a general responsibility for the organisation of the Record Office and other Register House Departments, the National Galleries of Scotland, the National Library of Scotland, and the Edinburgh Observatory; corresponding functions in England and Wales are shared between the Lord Chancellor, the Treasury, and the Admiralty.

On other matters there are Ministers whose statutory jurisdiction extends throughout Britain, e.g., President of the Board of Trade, Minister of Labour and National Service, Minister of Transport, Minister of Fuel and Power, and the Minister of National Insurance. The Scottish Secretary is, however, popularly regarded as "Scotland's Minister" and is expected to be the mouthpiece of Scottish opinion in the Cabinet and elsewhere in matters which are not strictly within the sphere of his statutory responsibilities. He may be appealed to on a variety of questions with a Scottish aspect, and in certain cases, e.g., in relation to the determination of development areas in Scotland, the Herring Industry Board, and the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board, he shares responsibility with Ministers for Great Britain. The Ministerial responsibility for the Forestry Commission and the Crown Lands Commission, whose jurisdiction extends throughout Great Britain, is shared between the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Scottish Secretary.

Legislation in matters within the sphere of English Ministers in England and Wales and of the Scottish Secretary in Scotland is usually dealt with in separate Bills owing to the differences in the law and conditions in the two countries; but sometimes a single Bill for Great Britain may be sponsored by the English Ministers and the Scottish Secretary. Legislation on matters within the sphere of Ministers for Great Britain is usually dealt with in Bills applying to Great Britain. Where a Bill applies to Great Britain it is necessary to translate for Scotland references to English law and conditions and this is done in a "Scottish application" clause.

Northern Ireland, while it is represented in the Parliament at Westminster by 13 members, has its own Parliament in Belfast. The *Senate* comprises the Lord Mayor of Belfast, the Mayor of Londonderry, and 24 senators elected by the members of the (Ulster) House of Commons, and the *House of Commons* of 52 members elected by the same electors and in the same manner as members returned by Northern Ireland constituencies to the United Kingdom Parliament. The Parliament has power generally to make laws for the peace, order and good government of Northern Ireland in relation to all matters except certain services reserved to the United Kingdom Parliament such as income tax, Post Office, Judiciary, Customs and Excise Duties, etc. All executive power in Northern Ireland is vested in the King, but is exercised by the Governor of Northern Ireland.

The services in Northern Ireland in connection with the lower Courts, police, prisons, civil defence, national fire service, elections and franchise are administered by the Ministry of Home Affairs for Northern Ireland in Belfast.

The Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland in Belfast exercises general and detailed supervision over all forms of education (other than university education) and superintends the working of the local education authorities.

The Ministry of Health and Local Government is responsible for housing, the public health services, etc. There are also the Ministries of Agriculture, Labour and National Insurance, Finance and Commerce.

(b) Parliament

Elections.—For parliamentary elections the country is divided geographically: there are county and borough divisions, and in Scotland a group of towns may form a Parliamentary Burgh, returning one member. Seats are distributed more or less according to population, approximately one seat to every 50,000, and some anomalies were corrected by the *House of Commons (Distribution of Seats) Act, 1944*. Under this Act a Boundary Commission was empowered to review Parliamentary constituencies with special reference to movements of population and local needs. A summary of the recommendations of the Commission for England was issued

on 30th May, 1946. Revised proposals for all three countries were in the Commission's reports, published 12th December, 1947.

On 30th July, 1948, the *Representation of the People Act* received the Royal Assent. It consolidates electoral law, implements a number of the recommendations of the Boundary Commissions and removes the last remnants of plural voting—the business premises vote and the university vote. The House of Commons is to be reduced from 640 members to 625, of whom 506 will be allocated to England, 71 to Scotland, 36 to Wales, and 12 to Northern Ireland.

The qualification for voting is residential, and the candidate who gets the largest number of votes in a particular constituency is elected.

There is universal adult suffrage, the only exceptions (apart from members of the House of Lords) being lunatics, and persons convicted of treason or felony.

The task of compiling the voters' register is laid on the local authorities, and is in the hands of the Clerks of the County and Borough Councils, the elections being supervised by the Mayors and Sheriffs. Members of the Armed Forces and the Merchant Marine, and persons whose business necessitates their being elsewhere at the time of the election, may vote by post, or by proxy, on the Absent Voters' List.

Parties and Seats : November, 1948

<i>Government</i>		<i>Opposition</i>		<i>Other Parties</i>	
Labour	393	Conservative . .	191	Liberal	11
		Ulster Unionist	10	Communist . . .	2
		National	2	Irish Nationalist	2
		Liberal National	13	Independent	
				Conservative	1
				Independent	
				Labour	3
				Independent . .	10
	393		216		29

By-Elections pending : 2 (1 previously Conservative, 1 Labour). Total : 640.

Legislative Process.—Most Bills are nowadays sponsored by the Government and introduced in the House of Commons, although some non-controversial measures are first introduced in the House of Lords (in normal times there is also provision for private members' Bills when parliamentary time permits).

The title is read, the Bill is deemed to have been read the First Time, and is printed. On the Second Reading a policy debate takes place, and, if the Bill passes, any accompanying Financial Resolution is usually considered. The Bill is then committed either to one of five Standing Committees or, less often while existing pressure of legislation continues, to a Committee of the Whole House, which reports on its findings. The amendments made in Committee, if satisfactory, are passed, and the Bill is read a Third Time, and passed to the House of Lords, where it goes through a very similar process.

If the Commons cannot agree to the Lords' amendments, or vice versa, a Joint Committee may be appointed to settle the matter. Under the Parliament Act of 1911 the Lords have power to delay all Bills except Money Bills for two years, if they are unacceptable, though this power is seldom used. (A measure to reduce the Lords' delaying power from two years to one passed the Commons 10th December, 1947, but has been twice rejected by the Lords.)

The Bill must then go to the King to receive the Royal Assent, and becomes an Act.

Apart from its purely legislative function, Parliament also debates questions of past or future policy at home and abroad. The Government consults the Opposition about the business of Parliament and arrangements for debates, which may be "full-dress" debates on important questions, debates on various matters on days reserved for Committees of Supply (when the Opposition can choose the subject), or brief debates on matters which individual members consider important, which they raise on the motion for adjournment. A feature of Parliament is Question Time, when at the beginning of each day's sitting, individual members, or peers, may ask Ministers in their respective Houses questions on matters of general importance or which concern individual cases or constituencies.

Legislation 1945-8

1945-6 Session.—During the 1945-6 Session of Parliament 96 Bills were introduced of which 84 became Acts. Among the most important measures were :—*

<i>Supplies and Services (Transitional Powers) Act</i> (20.8.45)	10.12.45
<i>Ministers of the Crown (Transfer of Functions) Act</i> (18.12.45)	22.1.46
<i>Bank of England Act</i> (10.10.45)	14.2.46
<i>Coal Industry Nationalisation Act</i> (19.12.45)	12.7.46
<i>Civil Aviation Act</i> (2.4.46)	1.8.46
<i>Cable and Wireless Act</i> (18.4.46)	6.11.46
<i>Atomic Energy Act</i> (1.5.46)	6.11.46
<i>Borrowing (Control and Guarantees) Act</i> (23.1.46)	12.7.46
<i>Finance (No. 1) Act</i> (31.10.45)	20.12.45
<i>Finance (No. 2) Act</i> (17.4.46)	1.8.46
<i>Hill Farming Act</i> (18.2.46)	6.11.46
<i>Agricultural Development (Ploughing-up of Land) Act</i> (20.2.46)	6.3.46
<i>Inshore Fishing Industry Act</i> (23.8.45)	10.12.45
<i>National Insurance Act</i> (20.12.45)	1.8.46
<i>National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act</i> (23.8.45)	26.7.46
<i>National Health Service Act</i> (19.3.46)	6.11.46
<i>Building Materials and Housing Act</i> (14.11.45)	20.12.45
<i>Education Act, 1946</i> (8.12.45)	22.5.46
<i>Trunk Roads Act</i> (26.10.45)	6.3.46
<i>Acquisition of Land (Authorisation Procedure) Act</i> (14.12.45)	18.4.46
<i>New Towns Act</i> (17.4.46)	1.8.46
<i>Bretton Woods Agreement Act</i> (7.12.45)	20.12.45
<i>United Nations Act</i> (31.1.46)	15.4.46

1946-7 Session : In the 1946-7 Session, adjourned 13th August, 57 out of 59 of the Bills introduced received the Royal Assent, including the following :—

<i>Agriculture Act</i> (18.12.46)	6.8.47
<i>Agriculture (Emergency Payments) Act</i> (5.5.47)	18.7.47
<i>Companies Act</i> (5.12.46)	6.8.47
<i>Crown Proceedings Act</i> (13.2.47)	31.7.47
<i>Electricity Act</i> (20.12.46)	13.8.47
<i>Finance Act, 1947</i> (23.4.47)	31.7.47
<i>Fire Services Act</i> (14.2.47)	31.7.47
<i>Industrial Organisation Act</i> (24.1.47)	31.7.47

* Figures in parentheses show date on which Bill was presented to Parliament. Other figures show date of Royal Assent.

<i>National Service Act (12.3.47)</i>	18.7.47
<i>Penicillin Act (5.3.47)</i>	18.7.47
<i>Statistics of Trade Act (4.12.46)</i>	31.7.47
<i>Supplies and Services (Extended Purposes) Act (5.8.47)</i>	13.8.47
<i>Town and Country Planning Act (20.12.46)</i>	13.8.47
<i>Transport Act (27.11.46)</i>	6.8.47

There was also the India Independence Act (Royal Assent, 18th July, 1947) which granted India independence from British rule and set up two Dominions within the Continent to be known as India and Pakistan. The Ceylon Independence Act and the Burma Independence Act received Royal Assent on 10th December, 1947.

1947-8 Session : Important measures introduced in the Government's third session included :—

<i>Children Act (18.12.47)</i>	30.6.48
<i>Criminal Justice Act (31.10.47)</i>	30.7.48
<i>Development of Inventions Act (13.4.48)</i>	30.7.48
<i>Employment and Training Act (22.3.48)</i>	13.7.48
<i>Finance Act (17.11.47)</i>	18.12.47
<i>Gas Act (21.1.48)</i>	30.7.48
<i>Local Government Act (27.10.47)</i>	24.3.48
<i>Monopoly and Restrictive Practices (Inquiry and Control) Act (25.3.48)</i>	30.7.48
<i>National Assistance Act (30.10.47)</i>	13.5.48
<i>Representation of the People Act (30.1.48)</i>	30.7.48

(c) Civil Service

The Civil Service in Britain is recruited by competitive examination, for which purpose, and for departmental organisation and salary scales, it is divided into three main grades : Administrative, Executive, and Clerical. The first grade is recruited from university graduates, the second from those who have taken the Higher School Certificate, and the third from those aged 16-17 who have taken the School Certificate Examination.

Civil Servants are either Permanent (Established) or Temporary (Unestablished). Permanent Civil Servants are not removable except on proof of gross incompetence, dishonesty, etc. They are pensionable and the retiring age is normally 60, with the possibility of extension to 65.

During the war, many new Departments were set up, and there has been a large-scale recruitment of Temporary Civil Servants. As a result, the total number of Civil Servants (including Post Office Staff, etc.) has increased from approximately 395,000 in 1939 to 715,282 (1st July, 1948). The entrance examinations were temporarily replaced by reconstruction examinations for those under 30 designed to facilitate entrance into the permanent service for those who have been engaged on war work, or in the Forces, and the *Superannuation Act* (13th May, 1946) makes provision for the establishment of a certain proportion from the Forces, as laid down in the White Paper of November, 1944 (Cmd. 6567).

The task of examining and selecting candidates is, subject to Act of Parliament, the care of the Civil Service Commission. The Treasury controls departmental expenditure and acts as the "employer," making regulations for the discipline of the Service. Machinery for negotiations on conditions of service is provided by the Whitley Councils (which have official and staff sides), and by the various unions, notably the Civil Service Clerical Association, the Union of Post Office Workers, and the Society of Civil Servants, which, since the passing of the *Trade Disputes and Trade Unions Act* (23rd January, 1946) may be affiliated to the T.U.C.

2. LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Like almost every other British institution, local government in Britain is the result of lively and varied growth over a long period. It has, in the British way, always cared more for vitality than for mechanical regularity, and it is best considered, not merely as a piece of machinery, but as part of a living organism. Its function has been to give the citizen a chance of self-government at his own level, and at each stage of its history it has represented an intermediate stage in government between the central executive and himself.

(a) Structure in England and Wales

There are seven types of local councils in England and Wales, the members of which are directly elected by the votes of the electors cast in local elections :—

- 62 County Councils.
- 83 County Borough Councils.
- 309 Borough Councils.
- 28 Metropolitan Borough Councils and 1 City of London Corporation.
- 572 Urban District Councils.
- 475 Rural District Councils.
- ↪ About 7,000 Parish Councils.

Each local authority derives its powers from Parliament, and generally speaking it is not answerable for its actions to any other authority (central or local) except to the Courts in the event of its decisions being challenged as *ultra vires*. The Ministry of Health is the central department most closely concerned with local government, but other departments (the Home Office, the Ministry of Education for example) are also in close touch with local authorities.

In the larger towns and cities outside London local government is in the hands of a single authority, the *County Borough Council*. County Boroughs are not normally below 50,000 in population and no new County Borough can be created with a population of less than 100,000 (*Local Government (Boundary Commission) Act, 1945*).

In the middle-sized and smaller towns the work is divided between the *County Council*, which looks after education, local health services, police, social welfare, public libraries and some other services throughout the county, and the *Municipal Borough or Urban District Councils*, which are responsible for the rest of the work in their areas.

In the rural parts of the county the work is divided between the County Council, the *Rural District Councils*, and the *Councils (or Meetings) of Parishes*, into which the Rural Districts are further divided. The Parish Meeting—whether called to appoint the Parish Councillor to take the place of a Parish Council in a small parish (under 300 population)—is an interesting piece of “direct democracy,” i.e., government by the assembled electors themselves.

London : London has always had special problems of its own and it has evolved its own unique form of local government. The *City Corporation*, which governs the historic square mile in the heart of the commercial City, is very ancient. On the other hand, the *London County Council (L.C.C.)* was only created in 1888, and the 28 *Metropolitan Boroughs* into which the County (outside the City) is now divided were incorporated as such in 1899. The L.C.C. deals with education, the larger housing schemes, certain public health matters and (from July, 1948) maternity and child welfare, besides many other civic activities. The City Corporation and the Metropolitan Borough Councils administer, among other matters, local sanitation and sewerage, the removal of refuse, the provision of libraries, baths and public wash-houses, street lighting, and markets.

The present distribution of the 124 Councillors' seats on the London County Council is : Labour 90, Conservative 30, Liberals 2, Communists 2. There are, in addition, 14 Labour and 6 Conservative Aldermen.

Mayors, Aldermen and Councillors : The civic head of the City of London and 17 other cities in England and Wales is called the Lord Mayor. This is a title of special honour, like the status of City. Other Boroughs, including most cities, have Mayors. Lord Mayors and Mayors are elected annually by the Town Council and they preside over its meetings, but they do not exercise the executive powers which many Mayors and Burgomasters possess in other countries. They usually receive salaries, which are in effect allowances for entertainment expenses. A County Council, District Council or Parish Council is presided over by a Chairman elected annually.

In the County and Borough provision is also made for the Council to appoint Aldermen, to one-third the number of the Councillors. The Aldermen are usually men with long records of local public service. They are members of the Council and enjoy a longer term of office (six years) than the Councillors (three years). All service by Councillors and Aldermen is voluntary and unpaid, though County Councils pay expenses incurred by members who have to travel to council meetings and committees ; and further provision for the expenses of members of local authorities is now being considered.

The Chairman of a County Council or of an Urban or Rural District Council is *ex officio* a Justice of the Peace for the county during his term of office. The Mayor of a Borough (County or Non-County) is *ex officio* a J.P. for his borough also.

A local Councillor must be a British subject of full age and also be a local government elector for the area or own land within the area, or during the whole of the twelve months preceding the day of election have resided in the area or, in the case of a Parish Council only, within three miles of it.

(b) Local Elections

Local elections were held in November, 1945, and March and April, 1946, for the first time since the outbreak of war in 1939. Elections for the Borough Councils in England and Wales were held on 1st November, 1945, and for Town Councils in Scotland on 6th November, 1945. Local elections for County Councils in England and Wales took place in March, 1946, and for District and Parish Councils in April, 1946. In the Borough Council elections of November, 1947, sweeping gains were made by the Conservatives, involving heavy losses by Labour. Over 2½ million more people voted in 1947 than in 1946. All parties except the Communists increased their voting strength. While the Labour vote increased by nearly a million, the Conservative vote increased by over 1,380,000 and that of Independents with Conservative support by 306,838. In the District Council elections held in April, 1948, there were also big gains by the Conservatives.

The Local Government Act, 1933, makes the following provisions, *inter alia*, relating to local elections. All Councillors are elected for periods of three years. County Councils, Metropolitan Borough Councils, some Urban and Rural District Councils, and Parish Councils are elected every third year when all the Councillors retire together. Elections are held annually for other Borough Councils and for most Urban and Rural District Councils (i.e., unless the County Council, at the request of the District Council, has made an order for all the Councillors to retire together). One-third of the Councillors retire annually and are elected at each of these elections. Borough Council elections are held in November, other local elections in March or April.

Elections to all local councils other than Parish Councils are held according to principles followed in parliamentary elections since the passing of the *Ballot Act* of 1872. There is a secret ballot and each elector has the same number of votes as there are seats to be filled. The procedure to be followed at local elections is laid down in the *Local Government Act*, 1933. District Councillors are elected under district council election rules made by the Home Secretary. These are substantially similar to those contained in the Second Schedule to the 1933 Act, applicable to Borough and County Council elections. Before an election is held the candidates must be properly nominated by two local government electors; notice of poll is given by the Returning Officer, who must also publish the names, addresses and descriptions of all duly nominated candidates. Public meetings are held, election addresses are circulated, and canvassers call on the voters and ask their support for particular candidates.

The election of Parish Councillors usually takes place openly in the Parish Meeting, but a poll may always be demanded and in some parishes orders have been made by the County Council for the adoption of the system of nomination, followed by a poll, which is used for District Councils.

All persons over 21 years of age who are registered in the National Register as residing or who occupy property (as owner or tenant) in the area of a local authority for which an election is being held are entitled to be registered for the local government vote. (In addition, in Scotland, an owner who is not in occupation of property can claim the local government vote in respect of that property.)

(c) The Work of the Councils

The work done by local authorities in Great Britain is very considerable, and the responsibility resting on the unpaid, democratically elected representatives who, as Councillors, give their services to its administration, correspondingly heavy. In terms of financial responsibility alone, for example, a total of £723.45 million was expended in 1943-4 by the Councils of England and Wales, of which £204.1 million was derived from local levies of rates on property (est. for 1946-7, £239 million), and £232.9 million from taxes in the form of Government grants. (Of these the most important—the General Exchequer Grant—is applied generally in aid of the local authority's expenditure, while others, e.g., the grant made by the Ministry of Education, are applied towards the expenses of a particular service. Large revenues are also derived from *ad hoc* charges for services, e.g., electricity charges, etc.) Over one-third of the revenue is derived from grants, over one-third from specific revenues to the local authorities, and under one-third from rates.

Local authorities are responsible for the local administration of certain national services for which Parliament has defined a national minimum standard; such services are the police (outside London), public health, including hospitals and maternity and child welfare, education, and housing. (Hospitals and public assistance (the relief of destitution) have become national responsibilities.) Local authorities also provide purely local services such as museums, libraries, markets, fire brigades (nationalised during the war*), street cleansing and refuse disposal, drainage and sanitation, and, in some cases, public utilities such as water, gas, electricity, and transport. Since 1938 local authorities have been responsible for organising and administering civil defence in their areas.

In many of these fields local authorities have permissive powers that are exercised variously in different areas.

The work of the local authorities in its main spheres is recorded in other sections of this book (see Police, Education, Health, Housing).

*The National Fire Service was formed in 1941, combining all local fire brigades. The Fire Services Act (31st Ju'y 1947) was passed to transfer the service to the control of the councils of counties and county boroughs in England and Wales, and of counties and large burghs in Scotland. A measure of central direction and control is being retained.

In public utilities approximately four-fifths of all water undertakings are owned by local authorities, acting singly or in combination. Local authorities control about one-third of the gas industry. Twenty-one local authorities operate all four of the water, gas, electricity, and transport services in their respective areas.

(d) Local Government Act

A new *Local Government Act* received Royal Assent on 24th March, 1948. It provides for the equalising of rates between "rich" and "poor" areas. This is to be done by equalisation grants "to be paid to local authorities from 1st April, 1948, in place of block grants and supplementary grants, and based on an average minimum rating standard for the country as a whole." It also provides for a system of central valuation, involving the reassessment of all properties: and for payments by local authorities to their members towards travelling and subsistence expenses and for "loss of remunerative time." The new equalisation grants, which will be heavily "weighted" in favour of the poorer areas, would on the basis of 1946-7 figures give a relief to the local rates in Britain of £45 million. The change is made possible by the transfer, on 5th July, 1948, of the cost of hospital and health services and the poor law system from local authorities to the State as a consequence of the *National Health Service Act* and the *National Assistance Act* (see p.110).

(e) Local Government Boundary Commission

A Local Boundary Commission was set up under the *Local Government (Boundary Commission) Act* (15th June, 1945) broadly for the purpose of making all local government units, both individually and collectively, effective and convenient units. The first report, published 22nd April, 1947 (H.M.S.O., 4d.), showed that 37 counties and 80 county boroughs had asked, or indicated their intention to ask, for some alteration. In addition, proposals were received from 44 authorities for the creation (either individually or in amalgamation) of 33 new county boroughs. Of the 309 non-county boroughs, the great majority are among the most effective and convenient units of local government. It is recommended that those that could not be made efficient by extension should be united with neighbouring districts, but should be allowed to retain their traditional historic associations intact.

(f) Scotland and Northern Ireland

Scotland : The Councils.—Scotland is divided for administrative purposes into counties, burghs and districts which are administered respectively by County, Town, and District Councils (*Local Government (Scotland) Act*, 1929). There are 33 counties, 196 burghs—including 24 large burghs, of which four are counties of cities, and 172 small burghs—and 199 districts. A district is made up of one or more electoral divisions of a county.

The four *counties of cities* are independent units for the purpose of all local government functions including education. The *other large burghs* are independent units for all purposes except education and in some cases police, the functions of education authority, and, where necessary, police authority, being carried out by the county. *Small burghs* are within the county not only for education and police but also for such purposes as public assistance, major health services (maternity services and child welfare, infectious diseases including tuberculosis and venereal disease, hospitals, food and drugs), town planning and classified roads, but the town councils administer such functions as minor health services (general sanitation, the regulation of the erection and construction of buildings), unclassified roads and streets, housing, water, drainage, public parks, public libraries, weights and measures. *District Councils* are charged with functions relating to recreation grounds, rights of way and allotments. *County Councils* have power to delegate certain functions to the Town Councils of small burghs, to District Councils, and to joint committees of such Town and District Councils.

The Secretary of State for Scotland is the central authority for local government in the country, and the chief Government Departments concerned are the Scottish Home Department, the Scottish Education Department, and the Department of Health for Scotland, which are under his control. They have their headquarters in Edinburgh.

Conveners, Provosts, Chairmen and Bailies : A County Council is presided over by the *convener* of the county, a Town Council by a *provost* or *lord provost*, and a District Council by its *chairman*. The convener of a County and the chairman of a District Council are appointed annually, but a provost or lord provost holds office for three years. A Town Council appoints from among its members a number of *bailies* who hold office so long as they remain councillors ; these with the provost or lord provost are the magistrates of the burgh.

Councillors : A person is qualified for election as member of a local authority if he is a local government elector for the area or any part of the area of the authority or if he has, during the whole of the twelve months preceding the day on which he is nominated, resided in the area of the authority. For this purpose the area of a County Council includes any burgh within the county.

Elections : County and District Councils have been elected triennially in December but future elections are to be held in November ; all the members retire at the end of the three-year term. One-third of the members of a Town Council retire each year and the vacancies are filled by election in November, or, in the case of certain fishing burghs, on a date between November and February.

County councillors for the landward area are elected by the local government electors, in the electoral divisions. (The term "landward" applies to that part of a county which is not contained in any burgh.) County Councils also include representatives of all the burghs which are within the county for any purposes, i.e., of the large and small burghs except the four counties of cities. These burghal county councillors are elected not directly by the electors but by the Town Council of the burgh in question. Members of Town Councils are elected by the local government electors in the burgh or a ward thereof. Members of District Councils (other than the county councillors for the district who are members *ex officio* of the district council) are elected by the local government electors in an electoral division (or ward thereof) of the landward area of the county.

Northern Ireland : The pattern of local government in Northern Ireland is similar to that in England and Wales.

Councils : There are six County Councils in Northern Ireland, two County Borough Councils (Belfast and Londonderry), seven Borough Councils, 26 Urban District Councils, and 32 Rural District Councils.

3. LAW AND ORDER

(a) The Administration of Justice

Speaking generally, the law in England and Wales is administered by Justices of the Peace and Stipendiary Magistrates in Courts of Summary Jurisdiction and in Quarter Sessions, by the County Court Judges in the County Courts, and by the Judges, Lords Justices and Lords of Appeal in the Supreme Court of Judicature, the House of Lords and the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.

Courts of Summary Jurisdiction :

Petty Sessional Divisional Courts : In these courts, of which there are over 1,000 in all in the English and Welsh counties and boroughs, justice is administered by magistrates, who may be either (1) the unpaid Justices of the Peace (mainly laymen) appointed by the Lord Chancellor (in Lancashire by the Chancellor of the Duchy), on the recommendation of his local advisers in each area ; (2) Justices (also unpaid) *ex officio*, who by statute or otherwise are magistrates by virtue of the holding of some other office or appointment, e.g., Privy Councillors, Mayors of Boroughs,

Chairmen of County and District Councils ; and (3) Metropolitan Police Magistrates in London, and Stipendiaries in some 17 of the larger cities in England and Wales, who are appointed by the Crown on the recommendation of the Home Secretary. Unlike the lay, unpaid Justices of the Peace, the Stipendiary Magistrates must be legally qualified and must devote their whole time to their duties, for which they receive remuneration out of public funds. The Justices sitting in Courts of Summary Jurisdiction exercise extensive criminal and civil jurisdiction. They must receive information and complaints, issue warrants or summonses and generally do all necessary acts and matters preliminary to the hearing both in criminal and in civil business. Their powers in criminal cases are to hear, try, determine and adjudge matters which may be dealt with summarily, and, in indictable matters not triable summarily (the graver crimes and misdemeanours), to decide whether the accused person should be committed for trial. Over 99 per cent of all criminal business in England and Wales is dealt with in these Courts. The Justices also deal with a large and varied field of quasi-criminal and civil business, and they exercise many administrative functions in connection with, for example, Licensing, etc., and the witnessing of statutory declarations and other documents.

While a single ordinary Justice of the Peace sitting by himself may deal with certain matters and determine certain cases, his powers are very limited and as a rule the presence of at least two ordinary justices is necessary for the proper constitution of a Court of Summary Jurisdiction. A Metropolitan Police Magistrate, a Stipendiary Magistrate and (in the City of London) the Lord Mayor or an Alderman sitting alone may exercise all the powers which ordinarily require the presence of more than one justice.

The penalties which Courts of Summary Jurisdiction are empowered to impose are laid down in the various statutes dealing with the offences. Broadly speaking, the maximum penalty is a fine of £50 or six months' imprisonment, or both. When the conviction is before one (lay) justice or two such justices in an occasional Court, the sum adjudged to be paid must not exceed £20—and the imprisonment must not exceed 14 days.

Quarter Sessions : There are in all 64 Courts of Quarter Sessions in the counties of England and Wales. These Courts are attended by the Justices of the County concerned and are presided over in practically all cases by Chairmen or Deputy Chairmen who are "legally qualified" within the meaning of the *Administration of Justice (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1938*. In every case in which the Chairman or Deputy Chairman of the Court is "legally qualified" the Sessions can exercise the extended jurisdiction as provided in the Act ; i.e., they can deal with certain specified offences of a grave character, with which the Justices in Petty Sessions are not competent to deal and which otherwise would have to be sent for trial to the Assizes, or, in London, to the Central Criminal Court. In a trial at Quarter Sessions the facts are determined by a jury as in a trial at, for example, the Assizes. The Courts of Quarter Sessions also hear appeals from Petty Sessional Courts and deal with Rating Appeals. Inclusive of Lancashire there are 257 boroughs with separate Commissions of the Peace, and of these 116 boroughs have their own separate Courts of Quarter Sessions. These Courts are presided over by the Recorder, who is appointed by the Crown on the recommendation of the Home Secretary. The Recorder is the sole judge of the Court of Quarter Sessions in a Borough. The position of the City of London is exceptional. The Lord Mayor, Aldermen and Recorder of the City of London have Quarter Sessions jurisdiction in a "Court of the Lord Mayor and Aldermen of London."

In a borough with a population of over 50,000, the Recorder has the "extended jurisdiction" under the Act of 1938 and, *inter alia*, the Recorder of any Borough with a Court of Quarter Sessions hears appeals from the Petty Sessional Court of the Borough.

The County Courts possess civil jurisdiction only, and their jurisdiction is limited by the pecuniary value of the property in dispute, e.g., land and buildings having an annual value not exceeding £100, debts and damages not exceeding £200, trust property, etc., not exceeding £500. They have been given special jurisdiction under various Acts of Parliament, e.g., the Workmen's Compensation Acts, the Bankruptcy Acts, the Rent Restrictions Acts, the Adoption of Children Acts. A considerable part of their business is concerned with the enforcement of the payment of simple contract debts, e.g., for goods supplied.

The County Court is a purely statutory court—dependent for its existence and jurisdiction on Act of Parliament. The whole of England and Wales is divided into County Court districts and there is at least one Court for each district. There are 459 County Courts, presided over by 58 Judges, who are appointed by the Lord Chancellor from barristers of at least seven years' standing. Small cases in the County Court are often tried by the Registrar—a subordinate judicial officer.

The Supreme Court of Judicature : This consists of the High Court of Justice and the Court of Appeal. It is superior to the other Courts mentioned above and inferior only to the House of Lords.

The High Court of Justice consists of the Judges of the King's Bench Division (presided over by the Lord Chief Justice), of the Chancery Division, and of the Probate, Divorce and Admiralty Division. All the Judges of the High Court have equal authority and jurisdiction, but for convenience special classes of business are taken only in each Division. Thus the King's Bench Judges try the more important criminal cases—in London at the Old Bailey, and in the Provinces when they travel to various towns to hold Assizes. They also deal with a large class of civil business, e.g., actions for debt or damages which are outside the pecuniary limits of the County Court, disputes about liability to income tax, and the heavier commercial cases, etc. The Chancery Judges are concerned mainly with matters arising out of the administration of wills and trusts, charities, partnerships, and the care of the property and persons of minors. The Judges of the Probate, Divorce and Admiralty Division deal with disputes arising over the proof of wills, with matrimonial business (e.g., divorce and nullity of marriage), and with collisions at sea and other maritime affairs.

The Judges of the High Court (styled "Mr. Justice So-and-so") are the descendants of the old King's Judges, who since the time of Henry II have sat in London and up and down the country to dispense justice to the King's subjects. Their number is now limited by statute to 32, and a minimum number has always to be assigned to each Division (17 to the King's Bench, five to the Chancery, three to the Probate, Divorce and Admiralty). The actual number assigned at any time to a Division depends, in practice, on the state of business in the Division, e.g., there are at present eight Judges of the Probate, Divorce and Admiralty Division.

The Court of Appeal : This Court hears appeals from the Judges of the High Court in civil cases, and also from the County Court. The Court is presided over by the Master of the Rolls, assisted by eight Lords Justices of Appeal. The Court usually sits in three divisions, each consisting of three Lords Justices.

The Court of Criminal Appeal : This Court, which is presided over by the Lord Chief Justice and consists in addition of eight Judges of the King's Bench Division, hears appeals from the King's Bench Judges or from Quarter Sessions in the more serious criminal cases. An appeal lies to the Court of Criminal Appeal on questions of law, and, with leave, on questions of fact or against the sentence which has been passed on the accused.

An appeal from the Court of Criminal Appeal lies to the House of Lords only if the Attorney-General (or in his absence the Solicitor-General) gives his certificate that a point of law of exceptional public importance is involved and that it is

desirable in the public interest that an appeal to the House of Lords should be brought. An appeal to the Lords from the Court of Criminal Appeal is a comparative rarity.

The House of Lords is the supreme judicial authority for England and Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. The jurisdiction is exercisable in theory by the whole House, but it is unconstitutional for any Peer to sit judicially except the Lord Chancellor (who presides), ex-Lord Chancellors, Lords of Appeal in Ordinary (law lords who are life Peers), and Peers who have held high judicial office. The Court usually consists of five Peers.

The jurisdiction of the House of Lords extends to criminal and civil appeals—the bulk of its work consisting of appeals in civil cases from the Court of Appeal in England and Northern Ireland and the Court of Session in Scotland.

The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council exercises on behalf of the Crown jurisdiction to hear appeals from the Dominions, India, the Colonies and from Ecclesiastical Courts in England and Wales. It also hears appeals from the Admiralty Judge of the High Court sitting in Prize. It consists of the Lord Chancellor, ex-Lord Chancellors, the Law Lords, and Privy Councillors who have held high judicial office in the United Kingdom, the Dominions, India, or the Colonies. Its judgment is given by way of a single opinion, advising the Crown to dismiss or allow the appeal.

(b) Police

General : There are at present 133 separate police forces in England and Wales. The Metropolitan Police Force is by far the largest. The City of London has a separate force, and each county and most of the larger boroughs have their own forces. The number of provincial forces has been reduced as from 1st April, 1947, under the terms of the *Police Act*, 1946. The general effect is that each county and each county borough has a separate police force.

The Home Secretary is the police authority for the Metropolitan Police Force. The other forces are under local control—in boroughs, the police authority is the Watch Committee of the borough council, and in counties the police authority is the Standing Joint Committee (half the members being county councillors and half being Justices of the Peace). All forces other than the Metropolitan force are, however, subject to inspection by H.M. Inspectors of Constabulary, and receive a Government grant of 50 per cent of their approved police expenditure, the remaining 50 per cent being met from local rates. Similarly, approximately 50 per cent of the cost of the Metropolitan force is met from the Exchequer. All forces are subject to Regulations made by the Home Secretary as to pay, discipline and other conditions of service, and there is a right of appeal in serious disciplinary cases to the Home Secretary against the decision of the disciplinary authority of the force.

Strength : The total establishment of the regular police service in England and Wales is about 68,000 (April, 1948). This total is made up of approximately 19,500 in the Metropolitan force ; 975 in the City of London force ; 21,500 in the borough forces ; and 26,000 in the county forces. In addition, there are 66,000 Special Constables. They are unpaid and are liable for part-time duty.

Women Police are employed, in small numbers, in most forces. They are attested constables. Their conditions of service are in essentials the same as those of the men. In September, 1946, there were in England and Wales 830 regular policewomen.

Specialist Organisations : All but the smallest forces have their own Criminal Investigation Departments, of which the Metropolitan Criminal Investigation Department at Scotland Yard is the best known. The Metropolitan force has the responsibility for central criminal records and a central fingerprint collection.

All forces can make use of the services of the Forensic Science Laboratories,

which are stationed in London, Birmingham, Bristol, Cardiff, Nottingham, Preston, and Wakefield.

Some forces already have adequate wireless facilities and plans are in hand to provide facilities for every force. Each force now has its own separate Traffic Department for dealing with road traffic problems and methods of accident prevention.

Scotland : In Scotland all the police forces are subject to regulations made by the Secretary of State for Scotland as to pay, discipline and other administrative matters. There are 31 county forces and 18 city and burgh forces. At the end of June the total authorised police establishment was 7,447 and the actual strength was 7,003.

Northern Ireland : The Royal Ulster Constabulary, constituted on 1st June, 1922, under the *Constabulary Act (Northern Ireland)* of that year, was recruited from disbanded members of the Royal Irish Constabulary, serving members of the Special Constabulary, and from civilian sources.

Rates of pay, allowances, and pensions are prescribed by the Minister of Home Affairs for Northern Ireland.

The present strength of the Force is approximately 2,865 men and 17 women.

(c) Treatment of Offenders

The lawbreaker in Great Britain can be dealt with in a number of ways. Punishments may take the form of orders for restitution, fines, corporal punishment, imprisonment or, in the case of murder and high treason alone, in practice, death. Under the *Probation of Offenders Act* the Court may discharge the prisoner altogether, "bind him over" to be of good behaviour for a period not exceeding three years or make a probation order requiring him to fulfil certain conditions under the supervision of a Probation Officer. Probation Officers deal both with children and adults except in London where there are from 60 to 70 Officers responsible for adults alone.

Principles : The governing principles of the contemporary prison system are based on the Report of the Departmental Committee on Prisons of 1895. This Committee condemned the harsh system of the day and recommended that "prison treatment should be effectually designed to . . . awaken the higher susceptibilities of prisoners and turn them out of prison better men and women than when they came in." As a result the present regime is based largely on the assumption that the deterrent influence of imprisonment lies in shame and loss of liberty, and that the direction of the institutional regime should be towards constructive training.

Administration : The responsibility for the administration of the 36 prisons and 20 Borstal Institutions lies with the *Secretary of State for the Home Department*. The prison systems for Scotland and Northern Ireland are separately administered through the Home Departments in Edinburgh and Belfast.

Prisons and Borstal Institutions are administered and inspected by the *Prison Commissioners*, who are responsible to the Secretary of State, and are permanent Civil Servants, appointed by the Crown. Since 1930 the Commission has consisted of the Chairman and two others, one of whom is the Medical Commissioner. There are six Assistant Commissioners, all of whom are permanent Civil Servants and one of whom is a woman.

Visiting Committees and Boards of Visitors form independent, judicial, voluntary bodies to whom any prisoner may take a request or complaint and who act as superior disciplinary authorities for the prisons to which they are attached.

Governors are appointed by the Secretary of State and are permanent Civil Servants. The Prison Commissioners appoint the *Housemasters* who are chiefly in charge of houses in Borstal Institutions, the *Chaplains*, the *Medical Officers*, and

also the subordinate staff, known as *Prison Officers*. The Prison Officers form a disciplined highly trained body of about 2,850 men and 260 women.

Classification of Prisoners : The daily average prison population (men and women) was approximately 19,000 at the beginning of 1948.

Prisoners of every type go first to a local prison and, unless removed to a special institution, serve their sentences there. Into the *Young Prisoners' Class* are placed all prisoners under 21 and, where possible, they are kept separate from other offenders. Those with longer sentences are sent to *Young Prisoners' Centres*, where special facilities are provided for training.

The Prison Act of 1877 defines treatment suitable for *Unconvicted Prisoners*, i.e., prisoners on remand or awaiting trial, as "as little as possible oppressive, due regard only being had to their safe-custody, to the necessity of preserving order and good government . . ."

The Star Class includes every prisoner who has not been convicted of previous crime and is not of criminal or depraved habits, whether he is sentenced to hard labour or not. To these prisoners, who are kept separate from others, are given the most interesting types of work, with the object of providing them with the maximum training and every opportunity of cultivating a sense of responsibility. At Wakefield Prison, a special training prison where these principles are in operation, of 5,183 prisoners of the Star Class discharged between 1935 and 1942 only 635 have been reconvicted.

Certain prisons are set aside for *Penal Servitude Prisoners*, known as *Convicts*. The maximum sentence of imprisonment is two years and therefore any longer sentence must be one of three years or more penal servitude. Convicts may qualify for release on a conditional licence when two-thirds of their sentence has expired. A sentence of *Preventive Detention*, of not less than five or more than ten years, may, in certain circumstances, be passed upon a *person found to be an habitual criminal*, that is, a person guilty of crime, with three previous criminal convictions and leading a consistently criminal or dishonest life. *Prisoners condemned to death* are segregated and given special treatment.

Prison Routine: (i) *Employment*: It is one of the first principles of the prison system that prisoners should be fully employed. In 1933 a Departmental Committee reported on the employment of prisoners, and as a result of their report a Director of Industries was appointed with a staff of supervisors and managers, workshops were extended, modernised and equipped with up-to-date machinery. The upkeep of the prison itself provides work for a number of prisoners in domestic service, the gardens, in chopping wood and making mattresses.

A great variety of trades is carried on and much prison equipment and clothing are made by the prisoners themselves. Farming, land reclamation and stockraising are undertaken at certain institutions.

In order to supply incentive an Earnings Scheme has been instituted in all prisons.

(ii) *Remission of Sentence*: In the years preceding the war a local prisoner could earn remission of a sixth of his sentence, and a convict, in practice, of a quarter ; but, during the war years, in order to reduce the prison population, a reduction of one-third of sentence was made possible for all. This arrangement is still in force.

(iii) *The Stage System* : Under this system the prisoner becomes entitled to new privileges as successive periods of his sentence are satisfactorily completed.

(iv) *Moral Welfare* : Chaplains of the Church of England, Roman Catholic priests, and Methodists are appointed for every prison and, wherever possible, any prisoner can receive the ministrations of a minister of his own denomination however small a one it may be.

(v) *Education* : An Adult Education Scheme for prisons was instituted in 1923. It was in operation at all prisons before the war but largely lapsed owing to shortage

of teachers during the war years. The Scheme is supplemented by periodical lectures, debates, and concerts of good music, and by libraries at all prisons.

(vi) *Prison Visitors* : In 1948 about 650 men and women are visiting prisoners, providing them with a contact with the outside world.

(vii) *Health* : Large prisons have one or more resident Medical Officers ; at small prisons a local practitioner attends daily. The nurses in men's prisons are Male Hospital Officers ; in women's prisons and in Borstals for girls and boys they are State Registered Nurses.

(viii) *Provision for Abnormal Mental States* : Prisoners already sentenced who are found to be insane are certified at the prison and removed to the State Mental Hospital or, in some instances, to a local mental hospital. Prisoners who are found to be mentally defective are certified at the prison and are removed to appropriate institutions. Medical Officers are given guidance as to the type of case likely to benefit by psychological treatment, and there is a centre at Wormwood Scrubs.

(ix) *Aid on Discharge* : Attached to every prison is a Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society which helps the prisoner to find employment and to adapt himself to society. Convicts are cared for by the Central Association for the Aid of Discharged Convicts, and female convicts by the Aylesbury After-Care Association. The Management of the individual Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society is voluntary and local, and the work is dependent primarily on benevolent subscriptions, assisted by a Government grant. The work is co-ordinated and encouraged by the National Association of Discharged Prisoners' Aid Societies. 65.8 per cent of the convicts discharged in 1943 were leading successful lives in December, 1945, when a review was made.

The new *Criminal Justice Act*, which received the Royal Assent 30th July, 1948, has for its keynote the principle that punishment should fit, not the crime, but the character and needs of the criminal. Its main provisions include :

Abolition of the power of the courts to order corporal punishment. Penal servitude and hard labour to go, and all sentences to be known as "imprisonment" without the classification of first, second or third division.

"Ticket-of-leave" release to be changed to another form of after-sentence supervision.

Amendment of the law relating to the probation of offenders.

The setting up of State remand centres for young persons between 14 and 21.

Reduction in the age limit for Borstal from 23 to 21.

Borstal Training : The Borstal system was set up by the *Prevention of Crime Act*, 1908, to provide training for young offenders between 16 and 23, guilty of serious offences, whose imprisonment is undesirable but for whom a period of training appears to be essential to prevent their turning into rebels against society. The object of the system is the development of character and of ability whether moral, mental, physical or vocational. A sense of responsibility is inculcated through a degree of trust which increases as the young offender progresses.

After sentence a youth or girl goes to a Borstal Reception Centre, where they are studied for some weeks by a skilled staff of psychiatrists and others ; finally an Allocation Board decides on the appropriate institution as the Borstals vary in character ; three are open camps where the maximum trust is placed in the lads. The basic training is the same in all institutions—a hard day's work on the land, in the household or in the workshop ; regular physical training ; evening classes in educational subjects, handicrafts or gymnastics, and adequate leisure for recreation.

On release young men are placed under the care of the Borstal Association, and young women under the Aylesbury After-Care Association.

In 1946, 2,082 youths and 157 girls were sentenced to Borstal detention. Of 5,888 youths discharged between 1940 and 1944 inclusive, 55.3 per cent have not

been reconvicted and 21 per cent have been reconvicted once only. The figures for girls are very similar.

(d) Juvenile Delinquency

Many of the war-time problems which are always a cause of juvenile delinquency have not yet been completely solved in the difficult early days of peace and reconstruction. During 1946 the number of children and young persons found guilty of all types of offence in Courts of Summary Jurisdiction in England and Wales was 61,623. During 1946 the number of children and young persons in Scotland against whom a charge was proved with a finding of guilt was 13,493.

Young people are still feeling the effect of the war, especially of the absence of fathers and elder brothers and sisters in the Forces, the interruption of school life owing to evacuation and bombing, the temptations of work in a market where the demand for labour far exceeded the supply and brought with it excessively high wages, and of the prevalent excitement and disturbance. Even today many mothers are aiding the production drive by working in the factories and consequently have less time to give their children.

Under the *Children and Young Persons Act, 1933*, children and young persons who have committed offences or who are in need of care or protection are brought before a juvenile court. The London Panel of Justices for the Metropolitan Juvenile Courts is selected by the Secretary of State, who also appoints the chairmen. Outside London the justices appoint from among their number justices specially qualified for dealing with juvenile cases to form a Juvenile Court Panel and from among these justices they select one to act as chairman. A juvenile court must be constituted of not more than three justices from the panel, and must include one man and, so far as practicable, one woman, and must sit either in a different building or room from that in which sittings of courts other than juvenile courts are held, or on different days from those on which sittings of such other Courts are held.

The *Children and Young Persons Act, 1933* (Section 44), provides that every court in dealing with a child or young person who is brought before it, either as being in need of care and protection or as an offender or otherwise, shall have regard to the welfare of the child or young person and shall in a proper case take steps for removing him from undesirable surroundings, and for securing that proper provision is made for his education and training.

The court may, if it considers it desirable in the interests of the child, send him to a remand home so that inquiries can be made into his home circumstances, medical history, and also so that the child may be kept under observation. There are various methods of treatment open to the court. It may put an offender on probation with or without a condition of residence; commit him to an approved school or to the care of the local authority with a view to his being placed with foster-parents; impose a fine, order a payment of damages or costs by the offender or, in suitable circumstances, his parents. The court may also make an order for punitive detention in a remand home for a period up to 28 days, but this is a form of treatment not very frequently used. In spite of the difficult conditions since 1939 the number of remand homes has almost doubled: at the end of 1947 there were 49 for boys, 5 mixed, and 19 for girls, and a further 5 are in preparation. Thirty-six other premises are used as Remand Homes by arrangement. One hundred and forty-six Approved Schools are now open. In 1939 some 500 whole-time and 550 part-time Probation Officers were employed in England and Wales. The present figures are nearly 800 whole-time and 300 part-time officers. It must be remembered that the Probation Officer deals with adults as well as juveniles.

In Scotland there are 20 Remand Homes and 26 Approved Schools. There are 75 Probation Officers in Scotland.

Other measures taken to combat juvenile delinquency include the provision of Child Guidance Clinics and Play Centres, the development of Youth Service Organisations and Youth Clubs, and increased recreational facilities. (For Child Guidance Clinics see *Education*, Section 2 (d) and for Youth Service see *Youth*.)

4. DEFENCE

(a) Organisation

In October, 1946, the Government presented to Parliament in a White Paper (Cmd. 6923) its proposals for a new Central Organisation for Defence. These involved setting up for the first time in British history a Ministry of Defence. A *Ministry of Defence Act* to give legal effect to this proposal was passed by both Houses of Parliament without amendment and received the Royal Assent on 21st December, 1946. The Ministry was formally established on 1st January, 1947, with Mr. A. V. Alexander as the first Minister. In the words of the Act he is responsible for "the formulation and general application of a unified policy relating to the Armed Forces of the Crown as a whole and their requirements." In framing these proposals, the Government had drawn upon the lessons of the period before the war as well as on experience during the war when Mr. Churchill as Prime Minister had assumed the additional title of Minister of Defence and had himself exercised a close control over the organisation and operations of the fighting services. The Prime Minister has retained the Chairmanship of the Defence Committee which, under the Cabinet, is the Committee responsible for deciding questions of major defence policy. The Minister of Defence is Deputy Chairman of this Committee and in this capacity relieves the Prime Minister of a great deal of responsibility in the defence sphere to which, amid the many preoccupations of peace-time reconstruction, he is naturally able to devote less attention than in war time.

The Chiefs of Staff Committee remains responsible, as the professional military adviser of the Government, for preparing strategic military plans and submitting them direct to the Defence Committee or to the Cabinet. At the same time it is closely integrated with the new Ministry. The Joint Service Staffs for strategic planning, intelligence and administrative planning which assist them collectively in their day-to-day work, are located within the new Ministry, and the Chiefs of Staff meet under the Chairmanship of the Minister of Defence whenever, as frequently happens, he or they may so desire.

The British Government is directly responsible for the defence of the Colonial Empire and, to assist it in discharging this responsibility, the pre-war Oversea Defence Committee has been revived as a sub-Committee of the Defence Committee in London. This body is charged in the words of the White Paper, "with surveying the whole field of defence preparations in the Colonies, and their correlation with the general picture of Imperial Defence. It will also be the duty of this Committee to make sure that full account is taken in Imperial plans of the contribution in men, materials, and facilities which each Colony is capable of making to the general pool in time of war."

The Committee of Imperial Defence which before the war had an overall responsibility, though this was advisory only, in relation to the defence of the Commonwealth as a whole has not been revived. Instead, a system under which Commonwealth countries exchange Service liaison officers of senior rank is being developed. Such officers with the respective Chiefs of Staff of the Commonwealth countries can study the defence problems of their particular regions, and by the fullest exchange of information and ideas facilitate the co-ordination of defence for the Commonwealth as a whole. Such a system is efficient and flexible and fully recognises the combination of autonomy and unity which is the main characteristic and achievement of the Commonwealth.

To assist the Minister of Defence to discharge his responsibilities for co-ordinating the policies and requirements of the Armed Forces, the following Committees have been set up :—

- (i) The Standing Committee of Service Ministers, which is assisted by two main official committees dealing respectively with Personnel and Administrative questions.
- (ii) The Ministerial Production Committee, which is also assisted by two main official committees :—
 - (a) The Joint War Production Staff, and
 - (b) The Defence Research Policy Committee.

The Standing Committee of Service Ministers considers questions of personnel and administration of common interest to the three Services, and requirements (other than production.) The Minister of Defence is Chairman ; the members are the Secretaries of State for War and Air, and the First Lord of the Admiralty. The Minister of Defence is also chairman of the Ministerial Production Committee. Its members are the Service Ministers and the Ministers of Supply and Labour. It considers the production requirements of the Services, defence research and development programmes, and questions of war potential. The Joint War Production Staff is composed of senior Service officers and representatives of the Service and Civil departments concerned with production, under a permanent chairman from the staff of the Ministry of Defence. In addition to co-ordinating the production requirements of the Services, the Committee is also responsible for the study of war potential. The Defence Research Policy Committee consists of those responsible from both the operational and scientific point of view for research and development in the Service departments and the Ministry of Supply. Its Chairman is Sir Henry Tizard, an eminent scientist, who serves on the staff of the Minister of Defence.

In addition to his co-ordinating functions as outlined above, the Minister of Defence has also assumed control of certain inter-Service organisations such as Combined Operations Headquarters, the Joint Intelligence Bureau and the Imperial Defence College (*see below*).

The functions of the Minister of Defence do not extend to Civil Defence, which embraces a large number of activities such as civil food supplies, transport, hospitals, and so on, which do not directly affect the Armed Forces. The Defence Committee provides the link between home security problems and broad defence policy, and, to deal with the former, a Home Defence Committee has been set up under the ægis of the Home Office on which various Civil departments as well as the Service departments are represented. On 19th December, 1947, the Prime Minister gave the outline of a new Civil Defence organisation which would consist in part of military mobile columns trained in civil defence duties.

Underlying the conception of the Ministry of Defence is a desire to build on the lessons of the war which illustrated fully the value of inter-Service co-ordination and co-operation. And nowhere is co-operation between the Fighting Services better illustrated than in the system of staff training for officers of the Navy, Army and Air Force. At an early stage of their career they are sent to separate staff colleges at Greenwich, Camberley and Andover respectively where they learn the elements of staff work. At a somewhat later stage in their careers they would, before the war, have been sent to separate staff colleges for more advanced training. Now, however, they proceed to a new Joint Services Staff College at Chesham which was opened in January, 1947, where they live and work together and where full emphasis is laid on the inter-Service aspects of staff work. This College caters for about a hundred students from the Navy, Army and Air Force, the Civil Service and the Commonwealth. Lastly, there is the Imperial Defence College which caters for a few specially selected senior officers, also from the Services, the Civil Service and the Commonwealth, whose object is, in the words of its late Commandant, General

Sir William Slim, "to produce throughout the Empire a body of senior officers of the Fighting Services and civil officials who will be capable of holding high commands and key appointments in the structure of Commonwealth defence, both in peace and war; men who have not only a full grasp of their own special subjects, but a sound knowledge of how those subjects dovetail into the complete Commonwealth effort."

A further illustration of the value placed on inter-Service co-operation is to be found in the joint exercises which are held. One such major exercise was conducted by the Chief of the Imperial General Staff, Field-Marshal Lord Montgomery, at Camberley from the 5th to the 10th May, 1947, to study the effects of recent progress in the science of warfare. Another took place 24th to 29th May, 1948.

(b) Policy

One of the functions of the Minister of Defence is to present to Parliament annually a general survey of the defence policy which the Government intend to pursue and of the provision in manpower, material and finance which they propose to make for the Armed Forces and their supply in the ensuing financial year. Thus two White Papers entitled "Statement relating to Defence" (Cmd. 7042 and 7327) were presented by Mr. Alexander in the months of February, 1947 and 1948. The first emphasised the essentially transitional nature of the financial year 1947-8 and the many exceptional defence commitments arising from the aftermath of war which the British Forces would be required to undertake throughout the world during that year. At the same time it defined the long-term aims of British defence policy under three important heads—the security of the United Kingdom, the safeguarding of the communications of the Commonwealth, and the provision of any Forces which might be required for use under the Security Council of the United Nations Organisation under Article 43 of the Charter.

The second, in reaffirming these aims, declared that the supreme object of British policy must continue to be the prevention of war, and that forces must be maintained in peace time to deter aggression which might lead to war, whether it was a question of self-defence or of support of the United Nations. In view of the country's economic situation it would be necessary to concentrate our defence effort on essentials. The White Paper then laid down the following principles. The Royal Air Force must be maintained at a level sufficient to preserve its essential structure and its initial striking power. The Royal Navy, with its air arm, must be enabled to perform its vital role in the control of communications and to execute such tasks overseas as are laid upon it. The Army must be in a position to meet its overseas commitments and to provide the organisation needed for training its National Service intake.

The Government announced towards the end of 1946 its decision that conscription must be continued when the current *National Service Acts* expired at the end of 1948. As the Prime Minister said in the House of Commons on 12th November, 1946: "The development of modern warfare has made this country more vulnerable. We can be reached by attack from the Continent. While in the past we always had a long breathing-space on which we could depend, that breathing-space is most unlikely to be available should any war arise in the future. The logic of that is that while we keep our front line forces as low as we can consonant with efficiency and the jobs they have to do, we must have trained reserves who can take their part right away without waiting for six months' training."

The *National Service Act* which became law on 18th July, 1947, provides as from 1st January, 1949, for full-time compulsory service of 12 months by men between the ages of 18 and 26, followed by a period in the Territorial Army or other appropriate Reserve. It does not apply to women, though it has been decided that the women's services shall continue on a voluntary basis (*see* p. 26). Nor does the Act apply to Northern Ireland.

Pending the coming into force of the Act on 1st January, 1949, it had been intended that men called up in the first half of 1947 should serve for two years, and that those called up subsequently should serve progressively shorter periods, until finally those called up in December, 1948, would serve for only one year. On 14th September, 1948, however, it was announced in Parliament that unhappily the state of the world made some change of plan inevitable, and that the Government had no choice but to take certain precautionary measures. All National Service men would be retained for a period of 3 months beyond their release date. In this way alone could the loss of trained men be halted, and, as a result, the strength of the Forces at the end of 1948 would be about 80,000 greater than planned, the increase being in trained personnel, who were the real need. Recruiting both for the Regular and for the Auxiliary Forces would be stimulated. The equipment position would be more quickly improved, especially in the fields of air defence, armour and infantry weapons. The present rate of output of certain fighter aeroplanes would be nearly doubled, and older types would be reconditioned. Considerable progress had already been made for the reorganisation of Civil Defence.

(c) Strength

(i) General

The strength of the Armed Forces, including men and women, but excluding personnel enlisted abroad, has risen and fallen since 1938 as follows :—

Year	Total	Royal Navy	Army	Royal Air Force
Mid 1938	319,500	117,000	133,000	69,500
Mid 1939	480,000			
Mid 1945 (peak)	5,090,000			
Mid 1946	2,032,000			
Mid 1947	1,292,000			
Mid 1948	846,400	143,100	465,800	237,500

In addition to the 846,400 members of the Armed Forces in mid-1948 229,200 civilians were directly employed by the Service Departments, and a further 350,000 engaged in production, research, development and works.

The number of men and women released from the Armed Forces between June, 1945, and June, 1948, was 5,309,590.

(ii) Royal Navy

The Royal Navy is second in power only to that of the United States. Its strength in ships at the end of 1948 has been given as follows :—*

	Operational	Training and Experimental	In Reserve
Battleships	2	2	1
Fleet Carriers	1	2	3
Light Fleet Carriers	5	1	—
Cruisers	15	2	11
Destroyers	34	18	65
Frigates	25	18	136
Monitors	—	—	2
Submarines	26	8	31
Minesweepers	12	2	51
Fast Minesweepers	—	—	3
In addition the following were under construction in 1948 :—			
Fleet Carriers	2	Destroyers	10
Light Fleet Carriers	10	Frigates	2
Cruisers	3		

*Compiled from Navy Estimates, 1948-9.

The Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve has been re-formed with twelve divisions. In process of reconstitution at six centres is the Royal Naval Volunteer (Wireless) Reserve consisting of Specialist Officers, Wireless Operators and Radio Electricians. Also being formed are 4 R.N.V.R. Air Squadrons with an establishment of 100 pilots and observers.

(iii) *Army*

On 1st January, 1947, the Territorial Army was reconstituted with a triple role :—

- (a) in the event of a future war to provide from the outset a large proportion of the Anti-Aircraft defence of the United Kingdom.
- (b) to provide units needed by the Regular Army to convert that force into a properly balanced force ready for battle.
- (c) to provide a second line for the Regular Army and the basis on which the Army will expand in war.

Until 1950 the Territorial Army will consist, as heretofore, of volunteers, but from then on there will be an increasing number of National Service men completing their terms of service in its ranks (*see p. 24*).

The Territorial Army consists of three corps comprising two Armoured, six Infantry and one Airborne Division, together with Independent Armoured and Infantry Brigades, Artillery and Engineer Formations and requisite Corps and Army Troops.

The force in Northern Ireland will remain on a voluntary basis, because, as already stated (*p. 24*), the National Service Act does not apply there.

(iv) *Royal Air Force*

No up-to-date figures of the strength in squadrons of the Royal Air Force are available.

The Royal Auxiliary Air Force has been re-formed with 20 Short Range Fighter Squadrons ; 12 Light Anti-Aircraft Squadrons of the Royal Auxiliary Air Force Regiment and 8 more in 1948 ; 9 Royal Auxiliary Air Force Air Defence Units for raid reporting and fighter control with 7 more in 1948.

The Royal Air Force Volunteer Reserve began recruiting of ex-pilots in March, 1947, and by the end of 1948 all densely populated areas will be covered by about 25 flying-schools and centres.

14 University Air Squadrons are operating as opposed to 3 before the war.

80 Gliding Schools with more than 700 instructors are teaching cadets.

The Royal Observer Corps, which identifies, and plots the movements of, enemy aircraft, resumed recruiting in 1947. By June, 1948, 13,000 men and 2,000 women had volunteered.

(v) *Women's Services*

As stated above (*p. 24*) it has been decided that the Women's Services shall continue on a voluntary basis : the Women's Royal Army Corps (formerly the Auxiliary Territorial Service) and the Women's Royal Air Force (formerly the Women's Auxiliary Air Force) are being incorporated in the Army and the Royal Air Force respectively. The Women's Royal Naval Service has never been declared a part of the Armed Forces in the same way as the other two services, and it remains a civilian organisation.

Women in these and in the Forces Nursing Services numbered in mid-1948 39,400.

(vi) *Civil Defence*

In the light of war experience the Government has drawn up a scheme of Civil Defence and constituted in the Home Office a Joint Planning Staff to direct and co-ordinate the activities of all concerned. Military, police, firemen, doctors, nurses, full- and part-time civilian elements are all included.

5. TOWN AND COUNTRY PLANNING

(a) Three Basic Reports

The considerable history of town and country planning during the past eight years can be split up roughly into the following three divisions, viz. :—

- (a) The original impetus given by the Barlow Report on the Location of Industry and the Distribution of the Industrial Population ; and the “ follow-up ” represented by the Scott Report on Land Utilisation in Rural Areas and the Uthwatt Report on Compensation and Betterment ; and the Government's response to these three Reports, 1943-1946.
- (b) The actual steps taken towards the replanning of towns and cities.
- (c) The passing of the *Town and Country Planning Acts*, 1947.

The Barlow Report. The Report of the Commission (Chairman : Sir Montague Barlow) on the Distribution of the Industrial Population was presented to Parliament in January, 1940, and provided a starting point for a new conception of the planned use of land.

Its immediate effects were seen in (i) the special mandate given to the Minister of Works and Planning to consider what machinery and legislation would be necessary for carrying out the reconstruction of town and countryside after the war, (ii) the authorisation extended to him to proceed with his preparatory work on the premise that national planning under a Central Authority would be part of the national policy, and (iii) the setting up of other expert committees to study two of the most important questions raised by the Report, viz., the effect of the main proposals upon rural areas and the problem of compensation and betterment.

The Scott Report. The Report of the Committee (Chairman : Lord Justice Scott) on Land Utilisation in Rural Areas was presented to Parliament in August, 1942, and dealt with measures needed to revitalise the rural areas so that they might absorb a certain amount of urban encroachment without loss to their characteristic way of life. The main recommendations of the Report were concerned with the need for maintaining good agricultural land and preserving natural amenities.

The Uthwatt Report. The Report of the Expert Committee (Chairman : Mr. Justice Uthwatt) on Compensation and Betterment was presented to Parliament in September, 1942. After a most thorough investigation into the controversial issue between public and private ownership the Report reached the general conclusion that the only way out of the confusion produced by the existing practice of compensation and betterment was to bring all land affected by planning resolutions into a single ownership ; and made a number of proposals designed to bring this change about without undue dislocation of the national economy and way of life.

Government Response. The response by the Government to the Barlow, Scott and Uthwatt Reports was manifested in

- (i) *The establishment of a Central Planning Authority.* This was effected by the passing of the *Ministry of Town and Country Planning Act, February, 1943*, by which the central planning powers were transferred from the Ministry of Works and Buildings to a new Ministry charged with the duty of “ ensuring consistency and continuity in the framing and execution of a national policy with respect to the use of the land.”
- (ii) *The extension of Interim Planning Control.* This was effected by the passing of the *Town and Country Planning (Interim Development) Act, July, 1943*, which in the first place provided that any land not already covered by a planning scheme should from henceforth be deemed to be covered by a planning resolution (thus bringing all land in the country under interim planning control as recommended in the Uthwatt Report); and in the

second place strengthened the position of both the Local Authorities and the Minister in regard to interim development as a whole.

- (iii) *Suggestions of more effective methods for the control of land use.* These were contained in the *White Paper on the Control of Land Use* (Cmd. 6537), June, 1944, in which an alternative solution to that proposed by the Uthwatt Committee was put forward. The main provisions of the Government Scheme were :

that there should be complete control of the use to which land is put—such control to extend to all land, whether built on or not built on ; that when permission to develop or redevelop (which materially increases the value of the land) is given, the owner should pay a betterment charge of 80 per cent on the difference of value due to such permission ; that when permission to develop or redevelop is refused, the owner should be paid fair compensation for any loss of value that existed at 31st March, 1939 ; and

that the payment of compensation as a whole, and the receipt of betterment charges as a whole should be brought into a single central account, so that Local Authorities should be left free to plan the development or redevelopment of their areas with a much greater degree of freedom from the hampering limitations of financial responsibility.

The White Paper also listed in detail the future aims of planning policy and proposed that (a) the methods by which land could be bought by Local Authorities for planning purposes should be reformed, and (b) all development rights should be subject to statutory restrictions.

- (iv) *The introduction of provisions for constructive as opposed to purely restrictive planning.* This was effected by the passing of the *Town and Country Planning Act*, November, 1944, which substantiated the proposals of the White Paper as regards Local Authority powers of land acquisition and the statutory control of development rights.

Under the terms of the Act, Local Authorities were able to purchase by a simpler and more expeditious method than had hitherto been available to them ; (i) areas of "extensive war damage" and land adjacent thereto ; (ii) areas where, although there may not have been any extensive war damage, a similar need arises because there are conditions of bad layout and obsolete development, and in this case also powers can extend to adjacent land ; (iii) land required for the "re-location of population or industry" arising out of the redevelopment of war-damaged or obsolete areas ; and (iv) land required for securing "an appropriate balance of development," e.g., industrial development or community buildings in a town where the proportion of these in relation to other development is too low ; the provision of public open spaces or playing fields, etc. The Act also provides for a heightened degree of collaboration between Local Planning Authorities of various kinds, and contains clauses amending the planning code in a number of important respects, e.g., agricultural buildings, hitherto exempt, may now be made subject to the provisions of a planning scheme and thus come under Interim Development Control.

[Associated with the *Town and Country Planning Act, 1944*, is the *Acquisition of Land (Authorisation Procedure) Act, 1946*, which in the first place provides "a uniform compulsory purchase order procedure for authorising Local Authorities, and certain Departments for specified purposes, to purchase land compulsorily for purposes covered by powers under the *Town and Country Planning Act, 1944*" and in the second place "for a temporary period a speedy procedure to authorise the proper authorities

as specified to enter on and take possession of land in advance of purchase in urgent cases for purposes for which they could otherwise be authorised to purchase the land compulsorily." Under the Act, Local Authorities are able to serve notice on a site and take possession within fourteen days.]

(b) Replanning in Action

Few results of replanning can as yet be recorded. Land development or re-development, the provision or revision of basic services, and the erection or demolition of buildings require not only legislation to make them possible, but a labour force, a wealth of raw materials and financial reserves not yet available in post-war Britain in sufficient strength or quantity. Certain essential preliminary measures however have been, and continue to be, taken. For example :—

- (i) *The number of Local Authorities with planning powers has been reduced from 1,441 to 146—the councils of counties and county boroughs—as an indispensable step towards securing that the broad design of territorial development shall be drawn by a manageable team of local planning authorities covering, singly or in combination, sufficiently wide areas.*
- (ii) *Special planning consultants have been appointed for six Government "development areas"—West Cumberland, South Wales, the North-East, South Lancashire, the Scottish Development area, and Wrexham in Wales. These appointments were made with the concurrence of the relevant Local Planning Authorities for the purpose of ensuring that any changes brought about by development under the *Distribution of Industry Act, 1945* "should conform with a general physical plan for the region based on a comprehensive survey of all the problems concerned."*
- (iii) *Various expert committees have been studying and/or making recommendations regarding certain aspects of the existing or proposed planning provisions. These Committees include: *The Central Advisory Committee on Estate Development and Management*, which was appointed in June, 1945; *The National Parks Committee*, which was appointed in July, 1945; *The Scottish National Parks Committee*, which was appointed in January, 1946; *The New Towns Committee*, which was jointly appointed by the Minister of Town and Country Planning and the Secretary of State for Scotland in October, 1946 (this Committee published two interim Reports, the recommendations of which were adopted in part in the *New Towns Act, 1946*; and a Final Report upon which no Government decision has yet been taken); *The Advisory Committee on Buildings of Special Architectural or Historic Interest*, which was appointed in October, 1945; *The Advisory Committee for London Regional Planning*, which was appointed in October, 1946; and a Committee appointed to study the qualifications needed by town planners having regard to the present and prospective scope of Town and Country Planning, which was appointed in June, 1948.*
- (iv) *Government approval has been given to a programme of map production which has been described as "the most comprehensive survey ever undertaken of the national life and resources of Great Britain." This programme includes :—*

The rapid publication (from existing material) of maps, partly of a provisional nature, incorporating revision carried out during and immediately before the war and depicting geographical and physical structure; land use; mining and mineral resources; industry; administrative areas; population; communication; public utility undertakings and other information, most of which has never previously been published or even collated.

The re-survey on a national basis of all built-up areas.

The overhaul, and recasting on a national basis, of large-scale plans outside built-up areas.

The survey of contours at a vertical interval of 25 feet.

Maps so far published in pursuance of this programme are :

The topographical *Base Map*, which serves as a standard underprint to all other maps except one.

A *Topography Map*, which forms a useful physical background for such subjects as roads and railways.

The *Population Density (1931) Map*, which represents a modification of a similar map published previously on a smaller scale.

The *Population of Urban Areas (1933) Map*, which shows the distribution of the urban population.

The *Administrative Areas Map*, which shows by various colours and tints the boundaries in England and Wales of the Administrative Counties, County, Municipal and Metropolitan Boroughs, and Urban and Rural Districts ; and in Scotland, the boundaries of Counties, large and small Burghs and District Council Areas.

The *Land Utilisation Map*, which presents a generalised picture of the land use of Great Britain before the second world war and shows the response of farming to physical and economic controls.

The *Types of Farming Map*, which shows 17 main types in England and Wales, and five predominant types in Scotland divided into 13 sub-types.

The *Land Classification Map*, which indicates inherent fertility and divides the land into ten main types according to its quality and agricultural value.

The *Grasslands of England and Wales Map*, which indicates where a progressive agricultural policy can affect the up-grading of pasture land in Britain.

The *Coal and Iron Map*, which shows the coalfields, distinguishing the exposed fields, concealed fields where the seams dip beneath younger rocks, fields not yet worked, and iron fields. Generalised geological sections appear as insets.

The *Iron and Steel Map*, which also shows the coal and iron fields, and the location and capacity of all works, distinguishing blast furnaces and steel works of open hearth and Bessemer and electric types. Coke ovens and limestone quarries are shown, those owned by the iron and steel industries being distinguished in both cases.

The *Roads Map*, which shows the Trunk Routes in distinctive colours. Each road bears the approved number of the Ministry of Transport, and the map also shows the ferries and the telephone boxes of the A.A. and the R.A.C.

The *Railway Map*, which shows the main and other systems distinguished by standard colours, and the number of tracks shown by three thicknesses of lines.

The *Electricity Statutory Supply Areas Map*, which distinguishes Local Authority and Company ownerships, Power Companies and Joint Electricity Authorities. Each undertaking is named and the area of distribution rights of Power Companies indicated.

- (v) *Official and unofficial Planning Reports* have been prepared for many of Britain's counties, conurbations, cities and towns.*

These plans cover such subjects as : the dispersal of the population ; roads and communications, including railways, docks, canals and airports ; industry ; housing ; public and quasi-public buildings, e.g., schools, churches, etc. ; public utility services ; open space ; and architecture and landscape. They make provision for the establishment of " New Towns " ; for industrial zoning according to the type of industry in question ; for ring routes to avoid traffic congestion in the centres of large towns, and for parkways to replace the old type of arterial road ; for at least seven acres of open space per thousand of the population ; and for a new low density of housing. In dealing with individual cities they are based on a conception of neighbourhood units of about 10,000 people, dovetailing into districts of about five neighbourhood units, which in their turn dovetail into the city as a whole. At each stage, they provide for the essentials (basic services, public recreational and educational buildings and institutions, open spaces and general amenity) to a well-ordered and complete community life. The plans also discuss the questions of administration, finance and time, stressing particularly that redevelopment on the proposed scale may take up to, and in some cases well over, 50 years.

Most of these plans are at present under discussion and examination by the public, by experts appointed for the purpose, by a number of Government Departments, and by the Local Authorities concerned. A definite decision has been reached in the case of the Greater London plan, the main principles of which were officially endorsed by the Government in March and accepted by the London County Council in November, 1946. Three projects to implement the plan were adopted by the L.C.C. in March, 1947; and on 11th November, 1947, the Minister of Town and Country Planning made an Order declaring approximately 1,300 acres subject to compulsory purchase for redevelopment by the L.C.C. Rebuilding in the centres of badly bombed cities is to begin in 1949.

- (vi) *The administrative machinery needed for the creation of New Towns* has been set up. The blueprint for this machinery was contained in the interim Reports of the New Towns Committee. Official sanction was given in the *New Towns Act, 1946*, which
- (1) Empowers the Minister of Town and Country Planning and the Secretary of State for Scotland to make an order designating any area of land (which might include as its nucleus the area of an existing town) as the site of a proposed new town, if after consultation with

*The County of London	Canterbury	Chelmsford	Nottingham
West Cumberland	Chester	Cork	Nuneaton
East Sussex	Coventry	Durham	Oxford
Gloucestershire	Dublin	Dudley	Preston
South Wales	Edinburgh	Dunstable	Rainhill
Suffolk	Exeter	Gravesend	Ramsgate
Yorkshire	Keslingland	Guildford	Richmond (Surrey)
Herefordshire	Liverpool	Helwood	Sheffield
Greater London	Norwich	Hastings	Southampton
Clydeside	Newcastle	Hull	Southend
Merseyside	Plymouth	Knutsford	Stourbridge
Manchester	Winchester	Leicester	Swindon
Glasgow	York	Leeds	Teignmouth
Birmingham	Bewdley	Macclesfield	Todmorden
The City of London	Birkenhead	Mablethorpe and Sutton	Tunbridge Wells
The City of Westminster	Blackpool	Malvern	Windsor
Bath	Bournemouth	Middlesbrough	Wolverhampton
Belfast	Brierley Hill	Newmarket	Worcester
Bristol	Christchurch	Northampton	

the Local Authorities concerned they are satisfied that it is in the national interest that the land should be so developed.

- (2) Authorises the Minister and the Secretary of State for Scotland to establish Corporations for the development of new towns, once the site has been designated.
- (3) Provides that the Minister and Secretary of State may by a Special Interim Development Order grant permission for all development which conforms with the plan for the New Town proposed by the Corporation and approved by him.
- (4) Provides that every corporation may acquire, hold, manage or dispose of any land or other property as they consider expedient for securing the development of a new town in accordance with the proposals which the Minister has approved, and subject to the limitation that no freehold or lease exceeding 99 years may be granted, except with the consent of the Minister, who must be satisfied that there are exceptional circumstances rendering such disposal expedient.
- (5) Provides that every corporation may provide water, electricity, gas, sewerage and other services but subject to the same control by Parliament as exists over other corporations. (It is intended that so far as possible the corporation should provide these services only where they cannot suitably be provided by existing statutory undertakers.)
- (6) Lays down that every corporation shall be deemed a housing association within the meaning of the Housing Act, and moreover should receive in respect of each working-class house which it itself provides, i.e., not under an agreement with a Local Authority, the annual Exchequer contributions payable under the *Housing (Financial and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1948*, to Local Authorities.
- (7) Lays down that every corporation must from time to time submit to the Minister in accordance with any directions given by him in that behalf their proposals for the development of the New Town, and further shall submit an annual report to the Minister dealing generally with their operations, which reports shall be laid before each House of Parliament. Annual accounts must also be prepared and submitted to Parliament.
- (8) Provides that when the purposes for which the corporation was established have been substantially achieved the Minister may make an order dissolving such corporation and transferring its activities to a Local Authority.

The capital cost of developing a New Town area will be advanced from the Consolidated Fund to each corporation, who will be responsible for repayment on terms approved by the Treasury.

- (vii) *Proposals for the Social Structure of the intended New Towns* have been put forward. These proposals, which were contained in the *Final Report of the New Towns Committee* (July, 1946), do not aim at any uniform physical or social structure for New Towns and recommend that full latitude for variety and experiment should be allowed. They cover such points as population, balanced social composition, choice of site (with due regard for national and local considerations), zoning of towns for industrial and other purposes, neighbourhood grouping of residential areas with the necessary provision of shops and public buildings, relations with the surrounding country, transport and services, the provision of social services and churches and of recreational facilities.

(viii) *The names of the first ten New Towns* have been announced, and the Development Corporations of seven of them have been appointed. Six of these towns—Stevenage, Crawley-Three Bridges; Hemel Hempstead; Harlow; and Hatfield and Welwyn Garden City—are within a sixty-mile radius of London. Two more—Aycliffe (on which work was started 16th August, 1948) and Easington—are in County Durham; while the remaining two—East Kilbride and an area of about 5,730 acres lying in the parishes of Markinch and Leslie in Fife—are in Scotland.

Those New Towns which are designed to serve immediate industrial needs or mining areas, e.g., Aycliffe, Easington, and in Scotland, East Kilbride, are to go ahead within the limits of the housing programme. Work on those designed to provide for industry and population decentralised from overcrowded cities are in general to be limited during 1948 to starting the provision of water, sewerage and roads. Arrangements for the essential preliminary development work will be worked out in detail by the Ministries of Town and Country Planning and Health.

(c) **The 1947 Acts**

In addition to these preliminary measures, two new planning Acts (in England and Wales, the *Town and Country Planning Act, 1947*; and in Scotland, the *Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act, 1947*) have received Royal Assent, and have become part of the planning law of the land.

The purpose of the new law is to establish an orderly, equitable and easily operated land use control system based on present-day ideas and requirements. With this aim in view it repeals or consolidates all existing planning legislation (with the exception of the *Ministry of Town and Country Planning Act, 1943*, those parts of the *Town and Country Planning Act, 1944*, concerned with the redevelopment of specified areas, and the *New Towns Act, 1946*), and introduces a number of new provisions designed to remove some of the most serious pre-war obstacles to good national and local planning.

Under the terms of the Acts, the old "planning scheme" system set up by the *Town and Country Planning Act, 1932*, and the *Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act, 1932*, has been replaced by a system of "development plans" for the whole country along the lines laid down by the *Town and Country Planning Act, 1944*, for certain specified areas. These plans, in which the broad lines of the finished picture are to be shown, must be drawn up and submitted to the Minister by every Local Planning Authority within three years after a day appointed by the Minister under the Act.

The Local Planning Authorities for this purpose are to be the County Councils, the County Borough Councils, or where county boundaries do not compose suitable units, Joint Planning Boards. In order to cater for purely local needs it will be incumbent upon the Local Planning Authority at each stage to consult the District Councils, who will in the last instance be responsible for putting the plans into effect.

Local Planning Authorities are to be allowed to set up Planning Committees to take over any or all of their planning functions except the power to borrow money or levy a rate; and these Planning Committees may set up sub-committees of their own.

If any Local Planning Authority is, for any reason, unable or unwilling to prepare a development plan within the given time limit, its powers may either be taken over by the central authority or transferred to another Local Planning Authority who has an interest in the area concerned.

Before any development plan is submitted to the Minister, it must be given wide publicity so that persons whose land is thereby affected may have due warning of what is intended; and before the Minister gives his approval to any plan, a public

inquiry or other hearing may be held. Every development plan will have to be reviewed at five-yearly intervals, so that it can if necessary be reviewed in detail to meet changed conditions, but once it has been approved and published, it cannot be challenged in the Courts, unless legal action is initiated within six weeks of the date of publication.

Under the Act, Local Authorities have power to develop themselves any land acquired by compulsory purchase without first offering it to private enterprise. The basis of compensation payable for land so acquired will be the current market value of the property, restricted to its existing use. Where an interest in the property carries with it the right of vacant possession, it will be dealt with as if there were a lease terminating on 1st January, 1954, interposed between the purchaser and his right to vacant possession.

Local authorities who buy land for immediate development will be responsible for paying for it (aided in some cases by grants from the Exchequer) since they will benefit from its increased value within a foreseeable length of time.

Almost all other development rights are the property of the State and are, in effect, saleable by the Central Land Board to developers.

Under the Act all land, including buildings upon it, pass from owner to owner at the value for the use to which it is actually being put at the time of sale.

If the owner then wishes to develop the land and has the permission of the local planning authority to do so, the increased value of that land is to be paid to the State and collected by the Central Land Board. Such a sum will be known as a Development Charge.

The sum of £300,000,000 has been allotted to be divided among owners whose property is depreciated by the Act, by loss of potential development value, and part of the Board's task is to settle claims. The final date for claims from the fund will be 30th June, 1949. Owners wishing to develop land must first obtain permission from the planning authority and apply for a determination of the development charge. The Board will let the owner know the amount of the charge within a month of receiving the application.

The effect of these provisions will be (a) to enable Local Authorities to decide on the best use of land without taking the cost of compensation for loss of development rights into account and (b) to stabilise the price of land at, or at about, its value for existing use, for the purchaser, in reckoning how much he can afford to give for land, will naturally subtract the sum that he will have to pay to the Central Land Board before he can begin to develop it.

(d) Parks and Footpaths

(i) *National Parks* : The conservation of extensive areas of beautiful and relatively wild country is one of the main objectives of town and country planning. In these areas the characteristic landscape beauty is strictly preserved, access and facilities for public open-air enjoyment are amply provided, wild life, buildings and places of architectural and historic enjoyment are suitably protected and established farming use is effectively maintained.

Ways and means of achieving this objective are discussed by the National Parks Committee in their Report, published July, 1947. This Report advocates :—

- (a) the establishment of twelve National Parks, covering 5,682 square miles in annual instalments of four over a period of three years ;
- (b) the selection of fifty-two additional areas of outstanding landscape beauty, scientific interest or recreational value as Conservation Areas, to be protected by special measures from disfiguring developments ; and
- (c) the maintenance of a coastal path by cliff, bay, dune and estuary round the whole of England and Wales.

Detailed proposals concerning the administrative and executive machinery needed for putting this programme into effect, and estimates of costs over a ten-year period are also contained in the Report. No date for its implementation can at present be given, but it is hoped that a start will be made as soon as the economic situation of the country permits.

A similar Report on the administration and financial measures necessary for the provision of National Parks and the conservation of nature in Scotland was published on 14th November, 1947.

(ii) *Access to the Countryside.* The Report of the Committee appointed by the National Parks Committee in July, 1946, to consider the question of public rights of way in all its aspects was published in September, 1947.

The Report concerned itself with the history and present law relating to footpaths and access to the countryside ; with the survey and determination of rights of way ; with the settlement of disputes ; with the protection and convenience of the public ; with closures and diversions ; and with conflicting interests in lands and beaches, shores and inland waters.

It recommended that a national survey should be made of all rights of way, and that legislation should be introduced to give the public the greatest possible freedom of access to cultivated as well as uncultivated land, whether mountain, moor, heath, down, cliff, beach, shore, or, in certain cases, stretches of inland water.

The Report also advocated the establishment or maintenance of long-distance footpaths, such as the proposed Pennine Way, and the old coastguard paths round the whole coast-line of England and Wales.

6. PUBLIC CORPORATIONS AND NATIONALISATION

(a) Public Enterprise

In Britain, the sphere of public enterprise should be distinguished from that of national ownership. Before the war the chief examples of public enterprise were the various public corporations such as the Metropolitan Water Board, the Port of London Authority, the B.B.C., the London Passenger Transport Board, and the Central Electricity Board. To this list might be added also the many statutory Conservancy Boards ; the Catchment Boards associated with the Land Drainage Act, 1930 ; the local port and harbour authorities for the larger estuaries such as the Clyde Navigation Trust, the Mersey Harbour Board, the Tyne Improvement Commission, and especially the Port of London Authority. And the list might be continued with such varied institutions as the semi-public Marketing Boards set up under the Agricultural Marketing Acts, 1930-1933, or the Herring Industry Board and the White Fish Commission. Lastly, account could be taken of the public enterprises of local authorities in gas, water, electricity and transport.

All these bodies were established or authorised by legislation and specially charged to serve the public interest, and all ranked as public or semi-public bodies. There is thus a long history in Britain of what may be termed public enterprise, a history marked pre-eminently by the traditional British capacities for preserving the best of the past in new institutional forms, for an empirical approach, and for variety of solution. The examples given in the preceding paragraph emphasise the astonishing versatility of form that has grown up with these bodies. In every case a special study is necessary in order to evaluate the particular sense in which each may be said to be a public enterprise, e.g., its powers in relation to the powers of central or local Government, the disposition of financial control, the powers of appointment, the ownership of assets, or the legal or constitutional relations. All these considerations vary from case to case and frequently from time to time.

In post-war Britain this experimental attitude has been no less marked. Although it has been characterised by an extension of public enterprise into the domain of

industry proper, accompanied by some measure of public ownership, the same variety of approach can be observed. Moreover, there are, in addition to the publicly owned services (see below) a number of new and interesting forms of public or semi public enterprise. Among these may be mentioned the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board, the Overseas Food Corporation, the Colonial Development Corporation, the reconstituted Herring Industry Board, the Agricultural Land Commission, the Central Land Board, the British Tourist and Holidays Board, the Raw Cotton Commission, the Northern Ireland Transport Board, the Northern Ireland Housing Trust. Officially sponsored and partly owned by the Bank of England, there are two interesting financial institutions—the Finance Corporation for Industry and the Industrial and Commercial Finance Corporation—both with special functions in the finance of industry (see below p. 67). Again the Royal Ordnance factories now have a special programme in the field of civilian manufacture, and industrial trading estates are now operated directly by the Board of Trade in certain parts of Britain, in continuation of the policy of special assistance to certain areas pursued before the war but now contained in the more embracing policy of the Distribution of Industry Act, 1945.

The Public Corporation is a characteristic British development and is still in process of adaptation. It resulted from the endeavour to find a solution to the problem of how to combine the best points of private enterprise and efficient commercial management with the stricter degree of public control and accountability required in the case of large-scale public services of a monopolistic character.

The process of experiment began in 1902 and by the outbreak of war in 1939 this form of organisation had been applied in the light of experience to a number of public services which Parliament had decided should no longer be left in private hands. With a few exceptions these earlier public corporations were not on a national scale ; nor did they involve national ownership. Continuous efforts were made to find a formula of management which would harmonise public responsibility in the use of economic resources and for the provision of public services with the steady pursuit of long-range commercial and industrial objectives. Various expedients which had already been tried in the country, such as municipal management or control by a joint stock company with the State or a Local Authority as the sole or predominant shareholder, were, for one reason or another, rejected as unsuitable in the case of certain types of public service. For these a new method was finally adopted by which each concern was managed by a public board of Directors established by statute or charter and granted the fullest possible freedom of action within the limits of general Parliamentary control.

The administrative machinery set up in each case was frankly experimental. It was planned in each case to carry out a specific task, and the size and composition of the Boards varied, as did the manner of their appointment, according to the nature and extent of the responsibilities and duties with which they were charged. The two most usual variations were the "mixed interest" agency, composed largely of members representing the interest served, with a small admixture of members attending on behalf of central and local authorities, and, in some cases, of members appointed by a central department to represent the interests of labour ; and what may be called the "classic" type of corporation, managed by "a corporate board of ability" with no direct interest in the undertaking.

The "mixed interest" Corporation included the local port and harbour authorities, notably the Port of London Authority, and were usually preferred where, as in the ports, the consumers of their services were organised in compact groups with localised and, in the main, common interests. On the other hand, services used by all sections of the population in all parts of the country, such as those provided by the British Broadcasting Corporation, were as a rule managed by the non-representative or "classic" type of Board. Both types had their advantages, and the

existence of both is said to have been amply justified by results. A brief note on some of them will serve to illustrate these points.

The Metropolitan Water Board. This was established under the Metropolitan Water Act, 1902, to take over and manage the undertakings of eight competing water companies which had previously attempted to provide an adequate supply of constant pure water in the London area. Responsibility for all water provision in the metropolitan area was placed in the hands of the Board, which consists of 66 voluntary part-time members who are the elected representatives of the various Local Authorities within the Board's area of operation. The Chairman and Vice-Chairman are elected by the Board, and these officials may be paid. Re-election of the whole Board takes place every three years.

The Port of London Authority. The Port of London Authority was created by the Port of London Act in 1908 to supplant the then competing dock companies. It has a governing body consisting of traders and local authorities, Ministerial nominees, and one person with a special knowledge of labour problems. Of its members 18 are elected by payers of port and dock dues, and the remainder (between 10 and 12) are appointed by the Minister of Transport, the First Lord of the Admiralty, the London County Council, the City Corporation and Trinity House. The Chairman and Vice-Chairman may be elected or appointed members, or they may be co-opted from outside by other members of the Authority.

The British Broadcasting Corporation. The British Broadcasting Corporation was formed in 1927 to remove a public broadcasting service from the hands of a private company. The Corporation was created by Royal Charter in order to signify freedom from Parliamentary control or Ministerial interference. The conditions under which the Corporation would operate and the percentage of licence revenue which it should receive were specified in a Licence and Agreement made between the Postmaster-General and the Corporation. These three instruments, the Charter, the Licence, and the Agreement, were renewed with some modification in 1936 for a further period of ten years, and again in 1946 for a term of five years. The Corporation has a salaried Board of Governors, consisting of a full-time Chairman and Vice-Chairman and not more than five additional part-time members appointed by the Crown from among persons widely representative of the general public, for a period of not more than five years. In financial matters, the British Broadcasting Corporation is under a greater degree of public control than the Corporations described above, for in times of heavy expenditure the share of the licence receipts which the Post Office allows it to take may be inadequate, and it may have to be subsidised from Exchequer funds. The annual accounts have to be approved by the Postmaster-General and laid before Parliament (see p. 150).

Among other important examples of Public Corporations set up in the period 1902-1939 were the Central Electricity Board (1926) and the London Passenger Transport Board (1933). Details of these have not been included as they have since been absorbed by the British Electricity Authority and the Transport Commission respectively (see pp. 76 and 135).

(b) Public Ownership and Nationalisation

The policy of public ownership was introduced by the present Government in 1945. This policy is usually termed nationalisation or socialisation, by which is meant public ownership combined with an exclusive or near-exclusive right to conduct certain operations. It is clear from the preceding notes that nationalisation has emerged from a long history of public control and public enterprise.

In origin it is a social policy ; as applied it necessarily represents a body of ideas concerning economic organisation. It is not possible here to present in detail the considerations arising from these two aspects. There are, however, two important

points. Firstly, the greater part of British industry remains under private enterprise. (It should be noted that iron and steel is the only manufacturing industry on the present programme of nationalisation.) Secondly, the organisation of nationalised industries contained in the legislation that has been passed relates to their administrative organisation, not their technical organisation. Generally speaking, they are public corporations in the charge of Boards appointed by a Minister, and operating within a broad administrative framework laid down in Acts. The detailed internal organisation of the corporations is left to the Boards, as is the technical operation of the industry. The general approach has been to adapt the form of ownership and management according to the circumstances of the case. The nature of public control by Parliament or by the Minister concerned, that is to say, the constitutional and legal position of these bodies, is a matter of particular definition in each case; and in fact is of necessity only beginning to emerge with the establishment of precedent and case-law as is customary with British institutions.

The Public Corporation in the form in which it has been set up since 1946 as an instrument of Government chosen to operate a national service has been defined as a "financially autonomous non-profit-making body created by an Act of State to provide a monopoly of goods and services on a commercial basis, ultimately responsible through a Minister to Parliament and to the public, but free from full and continuous Ministerial control." It has developed from the "classic" type of the pre-war corporation, with which it has much in common; and its foundation has been built upon the experience of the past.

(i) Structure of the Corporations

Like the earlier institutions, the Corporations for nationalised industries have not been modelled on a single design. In framing their constitution, it was decided to follow the example of the past, and, while taking into account certain general requirements and certain basic principles of business organisation, to devise each Corporation in relation to the particular task to be done. It was also decided that the members of the new Boards should share with those of Boards set up before the war the freedom from the necessity incumbent upon Civil Servants so to conduct their affairs that they can be ready at all times to answer Parliamentary questions upon details of everyday management.

The radical difference between the post-war Corporations and their pre-war predecessors lies in the size and the importance of the services and industries for which they are responsible. The National Coal Board (see below p. 73), the British Transport Commission (see below p. 135), and (possibly) the British Electricity Authority (see below p. 76), are larger than any similar undertaking in any part of the world, and the success of their operations is fundamental to the success of British industry. Because of this, and because the amount of public money placed at their disposal is very much greater than was ever at the disposal of the Corporations in the pre-war days, the post-war Corporations are so constituted as to be subject to a stricter measure of public control.

The recently created Boards are all of the "classic" or non-representative kind. Consumer interests have no place in them though provision is made for Consultative Councils on which consumers' interests are represented. That and the fact that they are all appointed by the Minister to whom they are ultimately responsible and from whom they are subject to directions on matters closely touching the national interest are the two factors outside the question of their accountability, which they have rigidly in common. In other ways, and particularly in the extent and method of organisation laid down in the Acts of State which established them, there are considerable differences between them. The National Coal Board, for instance, was given its central organisation and left to work out all the details of decentralisation and regional and local administration for itself. Transport, on the other hand,

was organised functionally from the start with due regard to all the services and activities involved. The Electricity Act provided for a strong central body with semi-autonomous area boards, on the ground that while the generation of electricity could best be organised from the centre, distribution could be more efficiently managed on a regional basis. Finally, the Gas Act (see below p. 75) provided a structure for the gas industry, which takes into account the fact that the manufacture and supply of gas have always been of primarily local concern, and therefore gives greater importance and greater powers to the area boards than to the central Gas Councils. In every case, an attempt has been made to create the kind of organisation best suited to the enterprise in question. Time and experience alone can show the measure of its success.

(ii) *Public Accountability of the Corporations*

The public corporations are business undertakings in which the community through Parliament is the equity shareholder. They are at the same time monopolist undertakings subject to most of the temptations of monopolies. It was, therefore, considered of the greatest importance that some means should be found which, while leaving them free to conduct their business properly, would make the Corporations sufficiently accountable to the public as a whole.

- (1) *To the Minister.* The various Acts establishing the Corporations all contain provisions aimed at maintaining this essential balance. In each case the appropriate Minister is responsible for appointing the Boards and is given powers to issue directions to them in matters closely touching the national interest ; for while it is probable that the efficiency of the Corporations would not be increased if their every move were scrutinised in Parliament, it is clear that where any of their operations enter the international sphere or closely affect the internal economy of the nation, the State, through the Minister, must be in a position to guide their activities and to ensure that the policy which they follow conforms with the over-riding national interest.
- (2) *To Parliament.* So far as accountability to Parliament is concerned, an endeavour is being made, for reasons already stated, to ensure that the Boards are judged over a period, and not, as in the case of a Government Department, on every administrative and executive action. Opportunities for discussing the activities of the Corporations are at present given (i) during the normal Estimates debate procedure (this will apply particularly in the case of the grant-aided Corporations where the actual or estimated grants are assessed annually and included in the annual estimates of the responsible Department) ; (ii) during the annual review of the Corporation's operations over the previous year, which takes place when the yearly Report and Accounts are presented ; and (iii) to a strictly limited extent at Question Time when the Speaker in the exercise of his discretion may " direct the acceptance of Questions asking for a statement to be made on matters about which information has been previously refused, provided that in his opinion the matters are of sufficient public importance to justify the concession."
- (3) *To the Consumer.* Outside Parliament, the interest of the consumer in the efficiency and cheapness of the nationalised services and supplies is provided for by the statutory establishment of Consultative Councils, whose function it is to hear representations from consumers, to consider questions referred by the Minister, and to advise him on how to use his powers of direction in the interest of consumers. If or when these Councils come into conflict with the Boards concerned, arbitration will be the responsibility of the appropriate Minister. In the Transport Act, provision is made both for a

quasi-judicial agency—in this case the Transport Tribunal—to deal with fares, charges and facilities, and for a system of advisory bodies to represent the interest of consumers.

- (4) *To the Nation.* The stockholders who provide the initial capital for the operations of the Corporations are safeguarded by the fact that equity in the Corporations vests in the nation, and that Stock issues, being guaranteed by the Treasury, carry a fixed rate of interest and are redeemable over a period of time. Accountability for proper financial regulation of the Corporations' activities, therefore, lies to the nation rather than to the stockholders and is provided for in the same way as accountability for policy and operational efficiency. In addition, the Minister is given considerable discretionary powers over the finances of the Corporations, and prior Treasury approval is normally required for all major financial transactions affecting their capital holdings.

Whether these measures of accountability will prove adequate to harmonise the claims of the public in their dual role of owner and consumer with the pressing need of the Corporations to be able to operate with the greatest possible amount of managerial freedom remains to be seen.

(iii) *The Problem of Efficiency*

The Corporations are still in the experimental stage, and many of the details of their organisation and activities can be settled in a final form only when sufficient experience has been gained to show the advantages and disadvantages of the original systems.

Nationalisation by means of the Public Corporation has the important initial advantage of being adaptable to circumstances and to change. It also has the advantage of being an innovation which does not represent a complete break-away with the past. On the other hand, as an institution, the Corporation has many aspects which are as yet unexplored and is faced with many problems which are as yet unsolved. Of these problems, the problem of efficiency is perhaps the most pressing, for while it is generally accepted that a way must be found to ensure that the monopolistic Public Corporations operating in reasonable seclusion will stand comparison with the best commercial achievements, no decision has yet been reached as to what that way should be or what tests should be applied.

The financial test is intended to provide one incentive to efficiency, for it is generally laid down that the Corporations must pay their way, and to do so, they will have to conduct their affairs as to be able to build up reserves to meet interest obligations in bad years as well as in good and to face the risks inevitably involved in policies of active development. At the moment, in the early stages of organisation and development, however, the financial incentive is held by many to be insufficient, for many of the services and industries which have been nationalised were in urgent need of reorganisation and re-equipment, and the large-scale investment required for these purposes has been and is still being paid out of public funds. In addition, although one of the objects of nationalisation is to save the public purse, there is actually no statutory provision to preclude recurrent costs being met out of higher charges to the consumer.

In using the Public Corporation as an instrument of nationalisation Britain is, however, using a method which is suited to her constitutional way of life.

Since 1946, the Bank of England, Cable and Wireless, Civil Aviation, the Coal Mines, Inland Transport, Electricity and Gas have passed into public ownership. (Details of the organisation of the various Corporations established to control and manage them will be found in the appropriate chapters.)

II. ECONOMICS, FINANCE AND INDUSTRY

1. GENERAL ECONOMIC POSITION

(a) Summary

There are a number of permanent features in Britain's economy. These are :

- (i) Overseas sources supply the raw materials needed by industry (the main exceptions being coal, china clay, some low-grade iron ore, some wool and some timber). Raw materials and food together represent more than three-quarters of all imports.
- (ii) Britain produces a little less than half the food her population requires.
- (iii) Consequently the export trade (including "invisible" exports which have been greatly reduced by two world wars) is of vital importance.
- (iv) There is an enormous preponderance of industry and trade relative to agriculture. Outstanding importance attaches to certain basic industries particularly Coal, Iron and Steel, Textiles, and Engineering, upon which the whole of industry and the success of the production and export drives depend. Manufactures constitute three-quarters of exports.

To these permanent features the effects of war have added others of a temporary nature. Of these the most important are :

- (i) The excessive dependence of both Britain, and of other countries from which she normally buys, upon Western Hemisphere supplies.
- (ii) The effect of the rising cost of primary products (which form most of Britain's imports) upon the cost of the manufactured goods which form most of her exports.
- (iii) The depletion of Britain's reserves of gold, dollars and dollar equivalents (which also serve other Sterling Area countries).

The paramount aims of economic policy and planning are, briefly stated, to redress the balance of payments as quickly as possible and so to conduct national investment as to provide a permanent solution of the balance of payments problem.

To secure these ends the intention is :

- (i) To reduce the excessive dependence upon the Western Hemisphere as a source of supply (44 per cent of imports in 1947), thus reducing the dollar drain.
- (ii) To reduce further if possible, or at least limit, imports in 1948 to 78 per cent of 1938 volume.
 - (a) by encouraging greater production and the development of substitutes at home ;
 - (b) by increasing agricultural production by 50 per cent, as compared with pre-war levels (20 per cent above 1946-7 levels) by 1951.
- (iii) To increase exports by greater production and productivity or adjustment of export lines to a volume at least $1\frac{1}{2}$ times as great as in 1938.
- (iv) To promote increases in the production of food, raw materials and manufactured goods in Europe and the British Commonwealth, and
- (v) To maintain the Sterling Area as a multilateral trading group.

(b) Historical Background

For 100 years the people of Britain, having secured a leading position as world manufacturers, merchants, carriers, bankers and investors, were able to support a rapidly increasing population (it more than doubled between 1851 and 1938) at a standard of living which steadily improved. Britain was the world's best customer as a large-scale importer of food and raw materials. The considerable excess of imports over exports was covered by income not only from the various services (shipping, banking, insurance, etc.) rendered to the world, but also from the overseas

investments which had resulted from the "ploughing back" of trading profits during the nineteenth century and the early years of the twentieth century in the form of development loans and investments in many parts of the world.

Furthermore the terms of trade (i.e., the relationship between the general level of prices for which British exports can be sold in world markets and the general level of prices Britain is obliged to pay for imports) had for fifty years up to 1930 moved steadily in Britain's favour. For example, taking as 100 the volume of exports required to purchase a given volume of imports in the years 1881-5, the volume required in the years 1931-5 was only 51—the most favourable position ever attained.

But even before the first world war Britain's share of world trade was dropping (though this was disguised by the fact that its total was increasing), particularly as far as exports were concerned ; but invisible exports were still more than adequate to produce an overall favourable balance of payments.

By 1935, however, the first signs of unfavourable balance of overseas payments were to be noted and, in 1938, 8 per cent of imports had to be covered by the sale of assets (see Table 1).

TABLE 1
THE UNITED KINGDOM BALANCE OF PAYMENTS

(£ millions)						
	Pre-1914 Estimated Annual Average	1938	1946	1947	1948 (6 mths)	1948 (Annual Rate)
Total payments for imports	610	835	1,092	1,540	887	1,774
Receipts from exports and re-exports ..	474	533	890	1,102	731	1,462
Balance of trade in goods	-136	-302	-202	-438	-156	-312
Income from overseas investments, shipping, banking services, etc. . . .	N.A.	405	399	375	247	494
Payments of interest abroad, shipping, tourists, etc. . .	N.A.	-157	-276	-360	-174	-348
Net Government expenditure overseas	N.A.	- 16	-291	-207	- 57	-114
Balance of "invisible" items ..	+270	+232	-168	-192	+ 16	+ 32
Balance of Payments	+134	- 70	-370	-630	-140	-280

This unfavourable change was due to a combination of the effects of certain long-term trends :

- (i) There was increasing competition from newer industrial countries, particularly U.S.A., Germany and Japan. Britain's share of world exports of manufactures, which was two-fifths in the late 1870's, dropped from one-quarter in 1913 to under one-fifth in 1936-8 ;

- (ii) Britain's pioneer industries, the foundations of her industrial power and wealth, especially coal, steel and cotton, were falling behind in their contribution to exports and were in need of re-equipment. Coal exports dropped from 73 to 40 million tons between 1913 and 1937, iron and steel from 5 to 2.6 million tons and the contribution of Coal and Textiles to exports reckoned as a percentage by value of total exports of U.K. manufactures and produce fell as follows :

	1913	1937	1947
Coal	10%	7%	0%
Textiles ..	38%	26%	11%
Total ..	48%	33%	11%

- (iii) primary producing countries were tending to encourage the establishment of manufacturing industries. These changes were intensified by the first world war.

The problem was further aggravated after the second world war in a number of ways :

- (i) The acute world shortage of food and raw materials has made the obtaining of supplies difficult and the prices to be paid for them higher. Furthermore, the balance of payments problem has had to be solved by many countries through the restriction of purchases of some categories of manufactured goods. The unfavourable change in the terms of trade since the very favourable position reached in 1931-5 has been serious for a net importer like Britain. What this meant can be illustrated by taking as 100 the volume of exports required to purchase an average volume of imports in 1938. On this basis 115 would be the volume of exports needed in 1947 and 120 in the first quarter of 1948. In other words more had to be exported to get the same amount in terms of imports. Table 2 shows the change based on 1947 = 100 :

TABLE 2
TERMS OF TRADE ⁽¹⁾ 1947 = 100

	1938	1947					1948			
		Year	1st Qtr.	2nd Qtr.	3rd Qtr.	4th Qtr.	1st Qtr.	2nd Qtr.	3rd Qtr.	Sept.
Import prices (c.i.f.)	39	100	93	99	103	105	110	116	117	117
Export prices (f.o.b.)	45	100	94	99	103	105	107	109	111	112
Terms of trade ⁽²⁾	87	100	99	100	101	100	103	106	106	104

(1) Since neither the average value index nor the price index is ideal for measuring changes in the terms of trade both over long periods of time and from month to month, the import and export index numbers shown here are the result of combining the two. This gives a measure of the adverse movement in the terms of trade between 1938 and 1947 and from month to month thereafter.

(2) A rise indicates an adverse movement.

- (ii) Excessive dependence on the Western Hemisphere, unravaged by war, as a source of supply for manufactured goods as well as food and raw material has produced in the world an acute dollar shortage which has further aggravated the balance of payments problem. Many countries, especially in Europe, not only temporarily ceased to be able to sell essential goods to Britain but themselves sought to make up their deficiencies from the Western Hemisphere. (In 1947 44 per cent of British imports came from the Western Hemisphere as against only 31 per cent in 1938, while exports to the Western Hemisphere had dropped in the same period from 17½ per cent to 15 per cent.) The rest of the Sterling Area was also running a heavy dollar deficit.

TABLE 3
DISTRIBUTION OF BALANCE OF PAYMENTS DEFICIT 1946-8

	1946	1947	First six months 1948	1948 Annual Rate
Western Hemisphere ..	-360	-670	-195	-390
Sterling Area	- 30	+ 85	+ 70	+140
O.E.E.C. Countries ..	+ 45	- 30	+ 40	+ 80
Rest of the World ..	- 25	- 15	- 55	-110
Total	-370	-630	-140	-280

- (iii) The loss of investments (over £1,000 million were sold during the war) and the accumulation of new sterling debts to the amount of over £3,000 million meant that net earnings from investments in 1947 covered only 3 per cent of imports compared with 21 per cent in 1938.
- (iv) The loss of ships during the war (half the pre-war merchant fleet) meant not only diversion of materials and labour to their replacement which has taken and will take time, but also a reduced excess of receipts over payment for shipping services.
- (v) Overseas commitments particularly in Germany and the Middle East meant the diversion of foreign currency from imports. Expenditure in 1947 amounted to £207 millions compared with only £16 millions in 1938.
- The deficit of £630 millions in 1947 was covered by dollars lent to Britain by U.S.A. and Canada and the sale of gold and overseas assets.

By the end of 1947 nearly the whole of the loans had been exhausted and gold and dollar reserves (which also covered the needs of the whole Sterling Area) were down to danger level. To meet this situation imports were cut to austerity levels, food purchases in U.S.A. were almost wholly eliminated, steps were taken to divert purchases to non-dollar sources of supply and the export and production drives were relentlessly pursued.

The main effect of the second world war was to concentrate into a period of a few difficult years the many necessary adjustments (e.g., the development of new export lines) and extensive reorganisations (e.g., re-equipment) which otherwise might have been carried out gradually over a period of years. This process was seriously impeded by the necessity of taking account of inflationary pressure (which

affected Britain no less than other countries) in planning the re-equipment of industry and of making reductions in the capital investment programme. The results achieved in making the necessary adjustments have reflected the comparative success of Britain's anti-inflationary measures.

TABLE 4

PRINCIPAL GROUPS OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, 1938, 1946, 1947

(i) Imports

The following table (based on declared values) shows that the pattern of import trade changed considerably in 1947, and that compared with 1938, food, drink and tobacco and manufactured articles represented a smaller share of the total, while raw materials increased in relative importance.

Class	Per cent of total value		
	1938	1946	1947
Food, drink and tobacco	46.8	49.0	45.1
Raw materials and articles mainly manufactured . .	27.0	30.0	31.3
Articles wholly or mainly manufactured . .	25.4	18.9	22.3

(ii) Exports

The table below shows the contribution to the total value in 1938, 1946 and 1947 of the most important individual groups, figures being given for any group which in any of the three years amounted to 4 per cent of the total. Apart from the increases for the various metal groups, with the exception of iron and steel, the most important feature is the virtual elimination in 1947 of exports of coal.

Description	Per cent of Total Value			Order of Importance		
	1938	1946	1947	1938	1946	1947
Machinery	12.3	12.5	15.9	1	2	1
Vehicles (including locomotives, ships and aircraft)	9.5	12.6	14.8	3	1	2
Iron and steel and manufactures thereof	8.9	8.7	7.4	4	3	4
Cotton yarns and manufactures . .	10.6	6.9	6.8	2	8	6
Miscellaneous articles wholly or mainly manufactured	6.1	6.2	6.0	7	9	8
Chemicals, drugs, dyes and colours	4.7	7.2	5.9	10	6	9
Woollen and worsted yarns and manufactures	5.7	4.8	5.1	8	10	10
Electrical goods and apparatus . .	2.9	4.1	4.3	12	11	11
Coal	7.9	1.0	0.2	5	12	12
Other metals	4.4	7.1	6.7	11	7	7
Other textiles	5.2	8.7	7.9	9	4	3
Other manufactures	7.3	7.5	7.0	6	5	5

TABLE 5

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1938, 1946 AND 1948

Year	By Value (£ millions)				By Volume (1938 = 100)		
	Imports	Retained Imports	Re-exports	Exports	Imports	Retained Imports	U.K. Exports
1938 ..	919.5	858.0	61.5	470.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
1946 ..	1301.0	1250.7	50.3	914.7	66.6	68.3	99.3
1947 ..	1787.5	1728.4	59.1	1137.1	75.2	77.4	108.6
1947—							
1st Qtr.	364.0	345.8	18.2	249.7	66.5	66.9	100.6
2nd Qtr.	455.5	437.7	17.8	264.9	76.0	77.5	101.9
3rd Qtr.	517.4	506.3	11.1	302.4	84.8	88.3	113.9
4th Qtr.	450.9	438.8	12.1	320.1	74.3	77.3	118.0
1948—							
1st Qtr.	487.5	472.1	15.4	353.4	77.6	80.4	125.6
2nd Qtr.	538.3	522.4	15.9	390.1	78.4	81.0	134.3
3rd Qtr.	524.6	508.8	15.8	406.6	78.9	81.9	138.2

(c) The Economic Situation in 1948*External Aspects*

The first half of 1948 showed an improvement in that

- (i) the measures taken in Britain and the rest of the Sterling Area were beginning to show encouraging results in reducing the dollar deficit;
- (ii) a respite was granted as a result of the aid forthcoming under the European Recovery Programme from the U.S.A., and
- (iii) measures for European co-operation were being pressed forward under O.E.E.C.

Nevertheless, the problem of closing the gap remained, aggravated by a further adverse trend in the terms of trade, and by signs that the sellers' market was coming to an end and that exports would have to meet increasing competition in which the question of price for quality would become a progressively important factor.

The Economic Plan's targets for 1948 and the actual results in the first six months (see Economic Survey, 1948, Cmd. 7344, and U.K. Balance of Payments, 1946-8, Cmd. 7520) were :

- (i) *Imports* during the first six months at 76 per cent of 1938 volume. Of the total, 34 per cent (c.f. 44 per cent in 1947) was to come from Western Hemisphere.

The actual figures for the first two quarters of 1948 showed imports of 78 per cent of 1938 volume. Prices, however, continued to rise, and expenditure on imports (*f.o.b.*) for the first half of 1948 was £887 million against the forecast of £792 million, though Western Hemisphere imports

were only £27 million above the forecast, representing 34·3 per cent of total imports.

- (ii) *Exports* at the average rate of 125 per cent of 1938 volume in the first half of 1948, at a monthly rate of 150 per cent at the end of the year and at an average rate of 130 per cent for the year as a whole. The most striking individual increases planned for 1948 were cutlery, hardware and instruments (213 per cent of 1938), machinery (206 per cent), vehicles (255 per cent), electrical goods and apparatus (252 per cent), rayon and silk (245 per cent), pottery, glass and abrasives (223 per cent).

Actual exports by volume in the first half of 1948 were at an average of 130 per cent of 1938, 5 per cent beyond the target, and continued the steady rise since 1946. In the second quarter they stood at 134 per cent of 1938 volume and in the month of July reached 149 per cent. Exports by value for the first half of the year were £26 million above forecast. Exports of iron and steel, machinery, vehicles, pottery, cutlery, hardware and instruments, electrical goods and rayon were all shaping particularly well. Coal exports were struggling to reach the target, and textiles, though behind, were beginning to make up leeway.

- (iii) *A total overall deficit* of £136 million—a deficit of £183 million with the Western Hemisphere offset by a favourable balance of £47 million with the rest of the world.

Actual figures in the first six months showed a deficit of £140 million, only £4 million above the forecast; calculated at the annual rate this amounted to a reduction of about 55 per cent on the 1947 deficit. A most important contribution was made to this encouraging result by invisible exports, which, against a deficit of £192 million in 1947, yielded a *surplus* of £16 million in the first half of 1948. The deficit with the Western Hemisphere was £195 million (only £12 million above forecast) which, at the annual rate, was equivalent to a reduction of £280 million from the 1947 figure.

- (iv) *A reduction of resources of gold and dollars* by £222 million (allowing for the rest of the Sterling Area).

The actual reduction, owing to the continuation of an unfavourable trend in prices and the terms of trade, amounted to £254 million (£147 million in the first quarter and £107 million in the second—a reduction of 25 per cent). In the third quarter the amount was reduced to £76 million, just compensated by E.R.P. aid, the amount to be received during the E.R.P. year working out at £78 million a quarter.

Internal aspects

Turning to the internal side of the economic picture the main need is for increased production both in the basic industries (coal, iron and steel, inland transport, electricity, and agriculture) and those in the foreground of the export drive (coal, iron and steel, textiles, engineering, vehicles, and pottery).

Production targets and actual half-year results in these key industries may be summarised as follows :—

- (i) *Coal.* 1948 production target 211 million tons. Mid-year total (week ending 3rd July) 106·1 million tons.

1948 export target : 16 million tons. Mid-year total 6.9 million tons.
1948 manpower target : 750,000. Mid-year total : 725,000.

- (ii) *Steel*. 1948 production target 14½ million tons. Mid-year total 7.56 million tons.

Production in the first and second quarters of 1948 was at the annual rate of 14.9 and 15.3 million tons respectively.

(iii) *Textiles*

- (a) *Cotton*: 1948 production target is an annual production of 1,000 million lb. Mid-year total was 439 million lb. (i.e. an annual rate of 878 million lb., compared with 740 million lb. in 1947). This represents an average weekly rate of 17.3 million lb. with an end 1948 weekly target rate of 20 million lb. ; the actual weekly rate for the first half of the year was approximately 17 million lb.

1948 manpower target is 325,000 ; the actual mid-year figure was 274,900.

- (b) *Wool : Worsted Yarn* (wool content) 1948 production target is a monthly rate for the year of 16 million lb. In the first half of the year the average monthly rate was 15.1 million lb.

Fabrics (excluding blankets) : 1948 production target is an average monthly rate of 24 million linear yards per month ; in the first half of 1948 the average monthly rate was 21.7 million linear yards.

1948 manpower target is 200,000 ; the actual mid-year figure was 179,100.

- (c) *Rayon* : 1948 production target is an average monthly rate for the year of 21.3 million lb. (staple fibre and continuous filament yarn). In the first half of the year the monthly rate averaged 19.8 million lb.

(iv) *Agriculture*

		<i>Acres</i>		
<i>Production</i>		<i>Actual 1947</i>	<i>Target 1948</i>	<i>Actual 1948*</i>
Breadgrains	..	2,199,000	2,595,000	2,343,300
Other grains	..	5,866,000	6,050,000	6,051,600
Potatoes		1,330,000	1,423,000	1,548,300
Sugar beet		395,000	400,000	413,400
Linseed		38,000	150,000	86,000

*Provisional figures

<i>Manpower</i>	<i>Actual</i>		<i>Target</i>
	<i>End 1947</i>	<i>Mid-1948</i>	<i>Mid-year 1948</i>
	1,055,000	1,085,000	1,110,000
		(est.)	

Industrial production in the first half of 1948 was running at a level between one-fifth and one-quarter higher than in 1946. In view of monthly fluctuations due to holidays and other causes a better picture of the trend is afforded by seasonal averages (1946=100) :—

	<i>Summer</i> 1947	<i>Autumn</i> 1947	<i>Winter</i> 1947-8	<i>Spring</i> 1948	<i>Summer</i> 1948
All industry. .	108	119	118	120	115
Manufacturing	110	121	120	122	117

Quarterly variations in certain important manufacturing industries are illustrated in the table below, which also shows the steady advance made :—

	1946 Average = 100					
	1947 1st Qtr.	1947 2nd Qtr.	1947 3rd Qtr.	1947 4th Qtr.	1948 1st Qtr.	1948 2nd Qtr.
Chemical	91	106	105	117	121	119
China and earthenware ..	102	118	117	131	141	143
Glass	98	107	104	119	120	123
Ferrous metal	92	105	100	111	117	119
Non-ferrous metal	104	116	113	120	121	116
Engineering, shipbuilding, and electrical goods ..	103	112	115	133	138	139
Vehicles	93	122	115	115	114	124
Textiles	91	109	109	121	126	128

(d) The Long-term Programme

The long-term objective is to get overseas trade into balance by the time the assistance of E.R.P. ends in 1952, on the basis of the highest practicable standard of living.

This can be achieved in three ways :—

- (i) Balance at the level justified by mid-1948 exports (without E.R.P. aid), i.e., at a level lower than existing austere standards involving cuts in raw material and food imports with serious effects on production, exports, and the policy of full employment. This must be ruled out.
- (ii) Balance at present austerity standards, i.e., paying for imports with current earnings (without E.R.P. aid). This means exporting half as much again of volume as in 1938 (the end 1948 target figure). A great effort will be required to achieve this result.
- (iii) Balance at a level justifying an improved standard of living. This would mean exporting nearly double the volume of exports of 1938, or substituting for manufactured imports a greater proportion of home-produced goods. A very great increase in production and, more important, of productivity would be required to make this possible.

While the third alternative remains the future aim, the second is the immediate objective. The main factors outside Britain's control which will govern the success or failure of this policy are changes in the terms of trade and the assurance of the continuation of E.R.P. aid until 1952.

The main methods to be employed to achieve the desired balance are :—

- (i) Increased exports, particularly to dollar countries (relying on Britain's main asset—prestige based on high quality and workmanship, and good design), and
- (ii) decreased imports from the Western Hemisphere (see Tables 6 and 7).
- (iii) increased production at home
 - (a) of things at present imported, particularly from hard currency countries.

(b) of import substitutes.

(c) for export ;

- (iv) co-operation with European countries (e.g., by export of coal, steel, machinery and agricultural equipment) to help build up their production of the goods Britain and Europe need from hard currency countries (e.g., timber, feeding-stuffs, pig and dairy produce, special machinery, aluminium). Britain is similarly making major contributions in the Organisation for European Economic Co-operation and in helping to iron out trade and currency difficulties ;
- (v) development of production in the Commonwealth countries, colonies and other overseas sources of foodstuffs and raw materials for the supply of which at present there is dependence on hard currency countries.

The implications of the plan throw into relief the vital importance of four industries :—

- (i) *Coal* to provide fuel and power for all industry ; coal exports to assist European recovery and to balance essential imports.
- (ii) *Steel and Engineering* to provide for increases in Britain's own productive power, and exports to dollar countries, and to support European and colonial recovery and development.
- (iii) *Textiles* to provide hard currency exports, and exports to stimulate colonial development and supply the home market.
- (iv) *Agriculture* to provide more food and animal feeding-stuffs from Britain's own soil and raw materials for industry.

These industries all require increased *manpower*, which must be found by drawing off labour from less vitally important industries. *Productivity* can be increased by re-equipment, re-deployment of manpower, improved management technique, and by giving full play to inventive genius. Increased *capital investment* will require national savings. Restraint will be necessary both in *consumption* to reduce imports to a minimum and increase exports to a maximum and also in *wage demands* and the *distribution of profits* in order to avoid inflation and rising prices.

It is an essential part of the plan for recovery within the period of E.R.P. aid that capital investment should be maintained at the level of £2,000 million in 1949 and each of the following years. Based on available estimates the following figures (all at 1948 prices) show how capital investment has been apportioned :—

	1938	1946	1947	1948
	£ million	£ million	£ million	£ million
TOTAL CAPITAL INVESTMENT (Fixed Capital)	1,900	1,550	1,900	2,000
INDUSTRIAL BUILDING (including Maintenance)	—	67	95	107
INVESTMENT IN PLANT, MACHIN- ERY AND VEHICLES (Total U.K., including Transport, Fuel and Power, and Agriculture)	—	450	650	675

TABLE 6

PRINCIPAL EXPORT AND IMPORT MARKETS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1938, 1946, 1947

(i) *Principal Export Markets of the United Kingdom :—*

Country	1938	1946	1947	Order of Importance		
				1938	1946	1947
	£ million	£ million	£ million			
Union of South Africa ..	39.5	75.3	91.8	1	2	1
India, Pakistan, etc. *	33.8	79.7	91.6	3	1	2
Australia	38.2	55.2	71.8	2	3	3
Eire	20.3	39.6	55.9	7	5	4
United States of America ..	20.5	35.5	47.9	6	6	5
Canada	22.5	32.6	43.4	4	8	6
New Zealand	19.2	27.9	43.1	9	10	7
Argentine Republic.. ..	19.3	20.5	34.7	8	15	8
Belgium	8.2	27.0	33.6	17	11	9
Netherlands	13.1	30.9	30.8	12	9	10
British Malaya	11.1	20.3	30.1	14	16	11
Sweden	11.7	21.4	29.9	13	13	12

*Formerly British India.

(ii) *Principal Import Markets of the United Kingdom :—*

Country	1938	1946	1947	Order of Importance		
				1938	1946	1947
	£ million	£ million	£ million			
United States of America ..	118.0	229.6	294.9	1	1	1
Canada	78.7	195.9	230.3	2	2	2
Argentine Republic.. ..	38.5	66.7	130.7	6	6	3
Australia	71.8	67.4	97.1	3	5	4
India, Pakistan, etc. *	49.9	69.0	94.4	4	4	5
New Zealand	46.9	74.4	89.6	5	3	6
British West Africa	9.3	36.1	53.0	24	8	7
Sweden	24.5	32.4	41.1	10	9	8
Cuba	4.8	20.5	40.3	35	16	9
Belgium	18.6	14.7	35.5	15	22	10
Eire	23.0	37.1	35.2	12	7	11
Dutch West Indies	14.7	25.6	34.8	16	12	12

*Formerly British India.

TABLE 7
DISTRIBUTION OF UNITED KINGDOM TRADE

Area	Imports (c.i.f.)				Total Exports (f.o.b.) including Re-exports			
	Percentage of total value				Percentage of total value			
	Year 1938	Fourth Quarter 1947	First Quarter 1948	Second Quarter 1948	Year 1938	Fourth Quarter 1947	First Quarter 1948	Second Quarter 1948
United States of America	12.83	14.80	11.24	7.55	5.40	4.45	4.90	3.95
Canada and Newfoundland	8.84	12.95	11.66	11.20	4.61	4.19	4.23	4.35
Argentine Republic	4.18	7.22	6.88	4.43	3.70	2.85	2.91	2.21
Rest of Western Hemisphere (other than Sterling Area countries, but including Japan and Philippines)	6.82	8.44	6.03	9.13	3.90	4.47	4.98	4.83
Union of South Africa	1.59	1.73	1.73	1.36	7.54	7.41	7.34	7.52
Rest of Sterling Area	29.61	31.04	35.17	34.38	34.13	41.40	41.79	39.69
European countries (including their overseas possessions, other than those in the Western Hemisphere)	31.94	20.27	21.53	22.73	36.16	29.03	27.48	30.19
Other countries	4.19	3.55	5.76	9.22	4.56	6.20	6.37	7.26
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

2. ECONOMIC PLANNING

The paramount aim of Britain's post-war economic policy is to redress the immediate adverse balance of payments as quickly as possible and to maintain thereafter a national investment policy and an internal distribution of British economic resources so designed as to secure a permanent solution. Within the scope of this primary objective—namely, independence of external support—the broad aims of British economic policy are :—

- (1) The highest possible level of production and productivity ;
- (2) Full employment ;
- (3) The control of economic fluctuations ;
- (4) An equitable distribution of the community's output ;
- (5) The co-ordination of an economical distribution of resources with what is physically, socially and strategically desirable.

The main solution of Britain's balance of payments problem is to raise her total output and to divert a larger proportion of that output to export markets. The main responsibility for raising the level of production rests on the individual initiative of managements and workers. The diversion of output to export markets is, however, directly within the scope of planning and control. To secure this end, expedients of various kinds can be employed ; for example, fiscal policy, both through direct and indirect taxation, can aim at limiting the consumption by the home market of goods required for export ; materials can be allocated to firms in accordance with their export performance, etc., etc.

The growth of economic planning in Britain has been accelerated by two main influences : (1) the rapid and violent changes thrust upon the British economy by the war and the after-effects of war ; (2) the general belief, born before the war and nourished thereafter, that the objectives of economic policy can be consistently achieved only through some measure of central direction of the whole economy. It is important to distinguish between (a) the technique of planning, which is expert estimation of actual and possible economic trends, (b) the machinery of planning, and (c) the measures of fiscal legislation, direct controls, organised consultation, information and exhortation which are used to promote the desired results.

(a) Technique of Planning

The first requirement for the exercise of the technique of planning is adequate information on every aspect of the economy. During and since the war, the British Government's fact-finding organisation has been greatly extended. An important step was taken in 1940 when the *Central Statistical Office* was formed to collate and expand the entire field of Government statistics. Provision for more frequent censuses of production and distribution has been made in the Statistics of Trade Act, 1947.

The second requirement is the ability to derive from the facts a comprehensive picture of the whole economy. Such a picture has been officially made available in Britain since 1941, through the series of official publications dealing with national income, capital investment, and the balance of payments.

The third requirement is the estimation of the particular changes and trends required to promote the aims of economic policy. Such an estimate has appeared in 1947 and 1948 as an annual Economic Survey in which the Government sets out the general position of the British economy for the current year, the action it proposes to take itself (other than fiscal action) and the action it desires from the general body of citizens. British planning thus attempts to co-ordinate the action of the major forces, realising that the forces themselves depend largely on individual initiative.

(b) Machinery of Planning

The principal elements in the planning machinery are (i) the Cabinet, (ii) the Chancellor of the Exchequer (who combines with that office the functions and responsibilities of the former Minister for Economic Affairs) and the Central Economic Planning Staff, and (iii) the Departments of State with the relevant Inter-Departmental Committees and Working Parties.

(i) *The Cabinet* is the principal executive organ of Government. As such it takes major economic decisions as a whole, though organised in Committees which deal with such principal aspects as economic policy, production, investment programmes, manpower, etc.

(ii) The appointment of a Minister for Economic Affairs was announced in September, 1947, to co-ordinate the whole field of economic policy and in particular the programmes of the main economic Departments of State. He had attached to him an Office for Economic Affairs, the chief parts of which were a *Central Economic Planning Staff* and an *Economic Information Unit*. On 13th November, 1947, Sir Stafford Cripps, then Minister for Economic Affairs, was appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer also, and the Office for Economic Affairs was incorporated in the Treasury organisation. Since 23rd December, 1947, the Treasury has had an Economic Secretary in addition to the existing post of Financial Secretary. Close economic and financial control can, therefore, now be exercised through a single organisation. This Minister's post is the key-point in the economic planning machinery. The Chief Planning Officer and Planning Staff report to him, and he has the task of presenting alternative plans to the Cabinet.

The *Central Economic Planning Staff* came into being in May, 1947. Some of its members are permanent Government officials, others are economists and statisticians recruited from the Universities. Its function is to *initiate* thought and action on general economic matters of vital importance to the nation and to co-ordinate the use of economic resources. Its field of activity is displayed in the annual Economic Survey, which is at once a report on the whole economy, viewing each major aspect as complementary to the others, and a programme for action in the current year. The Planning Staff is advisory; it has no executive status. The Cabinet, Cabinet Committees, Ministers and their Departments continue to be responsible for all actual decisions and for their implementation. The Planning Staff has, however, the personnel, the expertise, and the access to facts which give it the capacity for a combinational planning of resources appropriate to given sets of objectives.

An *Economic Planning Board* has also been set up "to advise His Majesty's Government on the best use of our economic resources, both for the realisation of a long-term plan and for remedial measures against our immediate difficulties." The Board, meeting under the chairmanship of the Chief Planning Officer, consists of representatives of both sides of industry together with senior officials of the Treasury, of the Planning Staff and of the main Economic Departments. Hitherto, industrialists and trade union leaders have been consulted by the Government from time to time on particular problems affecting their special interests. The institution of the Planning Board, however, is a radical departure, because it associates management and labour continuously with the Government in the consideration of planning problems as a whole. The Government is thus able to receive and take into account in good time the views of industry, while industry is in a better position to understand the problems confronting Government.

(iii) *Government Departments* constitute the third element in planning, and an important part in formulating the plan is played by inter-Departmental committees. These committees are functional, that is to say, they attempt to translate the projected programmes of the Departments, and of the various sectors of the economy which

they "sponsor," so far as these can be ascertained, into the principal categories of economic planning ; e.g., the balance of payments, production, imports, exports, manpower, and above all the capital investment programme. These committees draw their membership from the Departments concerned, from the Central Economic Planning Staff, from the Central Statistical Office, and from the Economic Secretariat of the Cabinet.

The principal Economic Departments of State are the Treasury, the Board of Trade, and the Ministries of Supply, Transport, Fuel and Power, Works, Civil Aviation, Food, and Agriculture. Before the war the Board of Trade was the principal Department concerned with economic affairs. During and since the war, however, the contacts between Government and industry have been greatly expanded, with the result that new Departments have been created and have taken over various functions from the Board of Trade. During the war, also, a system of "sponsoring" was developed to ensure that each sector of the economy had an appropriate Department to which it could refer. Broadly speaking, the Board of Trade is responsible for the consumer goods industries, e.g., clothing, textile goods, and leather, paper, and wooden goods ; the Ministry of Supply for the capital goods industries, e.g., iron and steel, chemicals, engineering and aircraft ; the Ministry of Transport for roads and railways and, jointly with the Admiralty, for shipbuilding ; the Ministry of Fuel and Power for coal, gas, electricity and oil ; the Ministry of Works for building and civil engineering. The administration of the housing programme is the responsibility of the Minister of Health, as are the country's water supplies. The Ministry of Food is responsible for the purchase, import, distribution and manufacture of foodstuffs, while the Ministry of Agriculture is responsible for the import of animal feeding-stuffs, agricultural production, forests and fisheries.

A comprehensive "sponsoring" system has thus emerged from the great body of permanent and temporary legislation bringing the Departments of State into contact with every form and aspect of the country's economy. The Departments thus remain as the principal executive organs for translating any plan into actuality. At the same time, it is only from their intimate knowledge of the plans and prospects of each part of industry and trade that the details can be assembled from which a balanced picture can begin to emerge through the machinery already described.

(c) Controls

The realisation of the main objectives which a plan is intended to fulfil is facilitated by certain basic controls. The principal controls are :—

- (i) the control of *imports* through a licensing system administered by the Board of Trade, or through direct Government purchase of imports.
- (ii) The allocation of *raw materials* to industry. The most important of these, such as steel, are allocated at the highest level ; others by a special Raw Materials Committee. The administration of the distribution of raw materials is in the hands principally of the Board of Trade, the Ministry of Supply, and the Ministry of Works.
- (iii) Equally important to the productive process with the allocation of raw materials is the distribution of *manpower*. During the war there were extensive controls on the movement of manpower between industry and the armed services, and among industries and occupations themselves. Though conscription was retained, most of these controls were abandoned after the war, but some were resumed in the autumn of 1947. Chief among these are the Registration for Employment Order, and the Control of Engagement Order. These controls are designed to direct manpower towards, or keep it in, essential industries.
- (iv) The allocation of *industrial goods* within industry is in many cases controlled by systems for licensing the acquisition, disposal or consumption of such

goods. These methods are applied, as in the case of raw materials, to industrial goods in very short supply. An important example is the licensing of various classes of machinery and machine tools.

- (v) Controls on *production* itself are mainly concerned with the relative levels of production of different kinds of goods, through the allocation of raw materials, industrial equipment, and manpower. They are thus mainly negative ; for example, the production of certain inessential goods is not permitted at all. In certain cases, however, the State specifies that some goods *are* to be produced, for example, utility cloths, standard sizes of turbo-alternators, etc. The most important distinction in the sphere of production that the controls seek to influence is the division between the production of capital goods and of consumer goods. This is perhaps the most important aspect of central planning and controls. Britain needs increasing quantities of capital goods, to re-equip her own industries, but capital goods form the backbone of the British export trade. It is necessary, therefore, at present to limit supplies of raw materials for producing consumption goods for the home market and to aim at a careful apportionment of capital goods between re-equipment at home and export markets. Specific powers to make such a distinction exist in some cases ; in others, such indirect instruments as steel allocations or building licences are used.
- (vi) The *distribution* of certain classes of consumer goods to the home market is also controlled by means of various rationing mechanisms, with " points," " coupons," or similar devices. The main classes of goods so controlled are food, clothing and fuel. The equitable distribution of these necessities is a cardinal point in current British social policy. At the same time, these rationing systems have the important function of restricting the total internal demand for those goods which are themselves imported or are derived mainly from imported materials. This restrictive function also facilitates control over prices. Similar general or direct control over the distribution of goods to the export market cannot, of course, be effected by such means. Accordingly, a negative system of control is exercised over goods for export by means of the Export Licensing System for essential goods in short supply, while an important positive influence is exercised through bilateral trade agreements, of which about 40 are currently in operation.
- (vii) There are in addition an important series of financial controls. Apart from the action of fiscal controls through the *Budget*, the Treasury can now in consultation with the nationalised central bank, the *Bank of England*, give directions to the joint stock banks on certain matters. Such directions have in fact been given in regard to the policy to be followed in regard to bank advances to industry. The *Borrowing (Control and Guarantees) Act*, 1947, limits the raising of additional capital above a certain amount without Treasury consent ; such consent is given through a special body known as the *Capital Issues Committee*. The *Exchange Control Act*, 1947, establishes permanent control of the buying and selling of foreign currencies.
- (viii) The remaining major control is that exercised over the *location of industry*. The *Distribution of Industry Act*, 1945, enables the Government to exercise a considerable influence over the location of new industries. Where alternative economic locations are possible, both controls and inducements are directed towards locating new industries in areas where surplus labour exists.

(d) Publicity

Major aims of economic policy cannot be achieved by trying to control everything in detail, or by setting each individual a programme of work. Both planning and control are limited to what is regarded by the Government as vitally necessary. The justification for specific controls is continually kept under review. Planning is an attempt to co-ordinate many forces. It is therefore regarded as of prime importance that the aims and methods of any plan should continually be brought before the whole nation by every means of publicity. It is the function of the Economic Information Unit to co-ordinate this publicity in conjunction with the Economic Departments and the Central Office of Information, which is the executive agency for all kinds of Government publicity. By posters, special publications, films, lectures, and so forth, there is a constant effort to present the current facts of the economic situation to both sides of industry and to the general public.

(e) Consultation with Industry

The new conceptions of economic planning in Britain have inevitably affected the relations between Government and both sides of industry.

One of the most interesting developments in post-war Britain is the growth of *organised* consultation between Government and both sides of industry. Such consultation was necessary during the violent adjustments of war-time production, and it has proved of great value in the difficult post-war years for the continuance of controls as well as for the enlarged participation of the State itself in industry and its assumption of planning functions. There are frequent discussions between the Cabinet, the Government, or Ministers, on the one hand, and employers and/or labour on the other, and the continuous association of the three in the Economic Planning Board has already been recorded.

There are two other important bodies which provide for continuous consultation on a national basis. They are the *National Production Advisory Council on Industry* (Chairman : The Chancellor of the Exchequer), first set up in 1941 under a different title, and the *National Joint Advisory Council* (Chairman : The Minister of Labour), first set up in 1939 and reconstituted in 1946. The former is concerned mainly with production problems, the latter with the broad field of industrial relations other than collective bargaining. The two Councils also provide a channel through which the Government can make available to both sides of industry confidential information on Government policy and the national economic position. There is also regional machinery. In the field of production there are eleven *Regional Boards for Industry* with their District Committees ; in the field of employment there is a network of *Local Employment Committees*.

Similarly, at Departmental level, there are a number of consultative or advisory bodies related to the particular industries or trades for which the Department is the production authority. For example, with the Ministry of Supply are associated the Iron and Steel Board, the National Advisory Council for the Motor Industry, the Engineering Advisory Council, the Gauge and Tool Advisory Council, and the Machine Tools Advisory Council. With the Ministry of Works, the National Consultative Council of the Building and Civil Engineering Industries, the National Brick Advisory Council and other bodies ; with the Admiralty and the Ministry of Transport work the Shipbuilding Advisory Committee ; and with the Ministry of Agriculture, the County Agricultural Executive Committees and a number of specialist bodies dealing, for example, with horticulture and hill farming. Other bodies deal with special problems, such as Fuel Efficiency, Juvenile Employment, etc.

There are a number of regional bodies in Scotland, and these are co-ordinated in the Scottish Economic Conference.

3. FINANCE

(a) National Income

The national income of the United Kingdom is estimated to have been about £8,770 millions in 1947 compared with £8,100 millions in the previous year. There was also a rise of £50 millions in the amount set aside for the depreciation and maintenance of capital equipment to £775 millions. Borrowing from abroad rose steeply so that total resources available for use at home in 1947 were well over £10,000 millions.

A broad picture of the national income in 1948 is given in the *Economic Survey for 1948*. From this it has been possible to assess how far the economic programme for the year lies strictly within the limits set by our total resources.

The forecast is necessarily built upon a series of assumptions, viz., that the size and distribution of the working population will progress according to plan, and that average hours of work will remain virtually unchanged; the latter further assumes that there will be no cuts in raw material imports. It has also been assumed that increases in productivity will be accompanied by corresponding increases in money earnings.

On the basis of these assumptions, the national income in 1948 is estimated at about £9,000 millions. It is hoped to reduce the balance of payments deficit from £675 millions in 1947 to £250 millions in 1948; hence, total resources available for use at home in the latter year will be slightly less, measured at current values, than in the former, and in real terms, possibly as much as 5 per cent less.

The distribution of the national income between the different types of expenditure after the apportionment of indirect taxes and subsidies can be expressed as follows :—

	1938 £ million	1946 £ million	1947 £ million	1938 %	1946 %	1947 %	1948 (est.) %
Personal Consumption	3,713	5,573	6,161	79	69	70	69
Government	767	2,411	2,115	16½	29½	24	22
Net Capital Formation at Home	297	496	1,169	6½	6	13½	12
Less External Disinvest- ment	-70	-380	-675	-1½	-4½	-7½	-3
National Income ..	4,707	8,100	8,770	100	100	100	100

(Source : National Income White Paper, Cmd. 7371.)

The proportion absorbed by personal consumption represents the amount available if the other two items of expenditure and the value of output are at the estimated levels; it does not represent demand. Whether or not consumers' demand is likely to be reasonably close to the estimated supply (£7,675 millions) depends on whether or not, by taxation and saving together, sufficient purchasing power is likely to be withheld to cover both Government expenditure and capital formation.

It was concluded in the Survey that, on the basis of the then existing tax rates, taxation would indeed withdraw purchasing power to a substantially greater extent than the various Government outlays would put purchasing power back into the hands of potential consumers. The extent of the excess of the withdrawal, i.e., the surplus on current account of public authorities, is estimated at about £275

millions, in addition to which it is estimated that some £700 millions will be set aside for maintenance and replacement. Estimated net investment, i.e., investment after allowing for borrowing and sales of assets abroad, is £1,550 millions. This means that £575 millions must be saved if the home investment programme and the planned reduction of the scale of foreign borrowing are to be carried through without raising prices and incomes above current levels. Should less be saved, that is if people spend more than is estimated on consumption, the demands of the latter will divert the resources needed both to fulfil the capital development programme and to reduce the adverse balance of payments by increasing exports.

(b) Taxation and Private Income

Total private income from work and the ownership of property rose by £650 millions to £9,227 millions between 1946 and 1947. Transfer incomes fell by £194 millions, so that the net rise was £456 millions. Private disposable income, i.e., private income after direct taxation, rose by almost the same amount, because direct tax liabilities did not change appreciably, but undistributed profits, which are part of this income, rose sharply so that the amount actually available for personal expenditure or saving, i.e., personal income, increased by rather less.

Total tax liabilities, i.e., direct and indirect, also remained at the same level throughout the two years, 28 per cent of personal income compared with 21 per cent in 1938. It is impossible to show the redistributive effects of total taxation on income, since there is no analysis of its incidence on outlay. The effects of direct taxation alone, which exaggerate the redistributive effects of fiscal policy, are shown below.

DIRECT TAXATION OF PERSONAL INCOME IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

<i>Ranges of Income</i>	<i>Percentage of Total Income within each group paid in tax</i>		
before tax	1938	1946	
Under £250	0.2	1.1	
£250-£500	2.5	7.7	
£500-£1,000	8.8	20.1	
£1,000-£2,000	14.8	30.4	
£2,000-£10,000	29.2	46.4	
£10,000 and over	56.6	70.4	

(Source : Cmd. 7371.)

(c) Budgetary Policy

The Budget, presented in April of each year with occasionally a supplementary Budget to meet special circumstances, contains details of estimated national revenue and expenditure for the financial year, together with proposed changes in taxation rates. After debate, effect is given to the proposals by an Act of Parliament. The 1947 Budget was directly framed to resist inflation and to save scarce currencies, and to these ends a surplus of £248 millions was budgeted for. The interim Budget of November, 1947, and the 1948 Budget were designed to strengthen still further the defences against inflation. The *Finance Act*, 1948, implements the 1948 Budget.

The object of the measures is to increase the national income and dispose of it in such a way as markedly to affect its future level. Durable assets, which are the foundation of a real increase in national income, must be derived from current national income, but personal consumption can scarcely be diminished. Hence, the series of increases in allowances and reliefs, designed to act as incentives to the lower income groups, are offset by a high level of indirect taxation to discourage an increase in personal consumption.

The most important aspects of the policy behind the measures is the need to meet the overseas deficit through a high level of net capital formation and a reduction in the finance of personal consumption. There are physical limits to the degree of

net capital formation possible in view of the needs of the export industries, but the required level for 1948 is high and depends to a large extent on a high level of savings, i.e., a deliberate withholding of money which would otherwise be spent on personal consumption. Savings, however, not only influence capital formation, but reduce the pressure of demand for resources which can thus be used for export goods, and also reduce inflationary pressure on the prices of scarce goods.

(d) 1948 Budget

Total expenditure in the financial year 1948-9 will, it is estimated, be £2,976 millions, a decrease of £233 millions on the previous year. The principal source of saving occurs in the defence items, which show a fall of £161 millions to a total of £693 millions. Civil expenditure shows a fall of £60 millions to £1,709 millions and expenditure on Consolidated Fund Services, i.e., chiefly interest and management of the National Debt, is expected to remain at the same level, £534 millions.

Estimated receipts at £3,765 millions are £80 millions less than in 1947-8. There is a very large fall in receipts from sources other than taxation, from £576 millions to £273 millions; sale of surplus stores is expected to yield little more than a half of last year's receipts, £102 millions compared with £197 millions; receipts from certain trading services show a similar fall from £101 millions to £57 millions, and miscellaneous receipts an even greater fall from £243 millions to £68 millions.

Receipts from taxation, on the other hand, show an estimated increase of £243 millions to £3,512 millions. Profits tax is expected to fall by £39 millions to £250 millions, and there are other minor changes in a downward direction. The principal sources of increased revenue are income tax, £1,309 millions compared with £1,190 millions, Customs and Excise, £1,547 millions compared with £1,421 millions, and the levy on capital which is expected to yield £50 millions this year.

(i) Income Tax and Surtax.

Income tax is payable on incomes over £135 per annum, subject to certain allowances. In the case of small incomes between £135 and £160 the charge cannot exceed 3/10ths of the excess of income over £135. The standard rate of income tax is 9s. in the £, but there are reduced rates charged on the first £250 of taxable income.

Incomes exceeding £2,000 are liable to surtax, which is levied at progressive rates varying from 2s. in the £ for the first £500 of chargeable income to 10s. 6d. in the £ on the excess over £20,000.

The principal reliefs include the personal allowance, at present £110, and the marriage allowance, which is £180. An employed wife receives the full personal allowance of £110 in addition to the marriage allowance of £180 received by her husband.

There are also allowances for children and other dependent relatives, the former £60, the latter £50 where the income of the person concerned is less than £70 per annum, and £50 minus the excess over £70 in other cases.

In addition to these reliefs, recipients of earned income receive an allowance, which is a percentage of their total income, subject to a maximum allowance of tax-free income as laid down in the annual Finance Acts.

In the Finance Act, 1948, provision is made to increase the earned income relief from 1/6th to 1/5th subject to a maximum allowance of £400 instead of £250 as before. The amount of taxable income charged at the reduced rate is also increased; the first £50 remain chargeable at 3s. in the £, and the next £200 instead of £75 as previously are chargeable at 6s.

Where a wife is in employment, it is proposed that reduced rate relief shall be given in respect of her earned income in addition to the previous allowance given in respect of the joint income of husband and wife, i.e., the couple pay at the reduced rates on the first £500 of their joint income.

INCOME TAX AND SURTAX PAID BY PERSONS WITH DIFFERING INCOMES AND FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES

Earned Income before Tax	Single Persons		Married Couples with no Children		Married Couples with two Children	
	1947-8	1948-9	1947-8	1948-9	1947-8	1948-9
£	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.
150	2 5	1 10	—	—	—	—
200	9 10	7 10	—	—	—	—
300	36 15	31 10	13 10	10 10	—	—
500	111 15	85 10	80 5	58 10	27 10	22 10
1,000	299 5	265 10	267 15	234 0	213 15	180 0
2,000	711 15	625 10	680 5	594 0	626 5	540 0
5,000	2,574 5	2,488 0	2,542 15	2,456 10	2,488 15	2,402 10
10,000	6,499 5	6,413 0	6,467 15	6,381 10	6,413 15	6,327 10

(Source : Financial Statement 1948-9.)

(ii) Special Contribution

A special contribution is being charged in 1948-9 on investment income which exceeds £250, provided the total income exceeds £2,000. The charge is on the following scale and is expected to yield £50 millions in the current financial year 1948-9.

Slice of Investment Income—£	Rate of Contribution per £
250– 500	2s.
500–1,000	4s.
1,000–2,000	6s.
2,000–5,000	8s.
over 5,000	10s.

(Source : Financial Statement 1948-9.)

(iii) Death Duties

The present rates of *Estate Duty* became law in 1946 when estates of a net capital value of less than £2,000 were exempted from payment and a new scale for values over £2,000 was introduced. The duty is levied as a percentage of the net capital value of the total estate, ranging from 1 per cent on estates worth £2,000 to 75 per cent on those worth more than £2,000,000. Some examples are given below.

Net capital value of total estate		Rate per cent of duty
Exceeding	Not exceeding	
£	£	%
5,000	7,500	3
10,000	12,500	6
20,000	25,000	12
50,000	60,000	24
100,000	150,000	35
500,000	750,000	60
1,000,000	2,000,000	70

(Source : Financial Statement 1946-7.)

Legacy and Succession Duties were doubled, except on bequests to charities, in 1947. All bequests of less than £100 and/or from estates worth less than £2,000 net were exempted. The rates are levied according to the relationship of the beneficiary as follows :—

Husband or wife, lineal ancestor or descendant	..	2 per cent
Brother or sister or their lineal descendant		10 per cent
Charities		10 per cent
Any other beneficiary		20 per cent

(Source : Financial Statement 1947-8.)

(iv) *Stamp Duties*

The *Finance Act*, 1947, doubled various stamp duties, including those on conveyance and transfers by way of sale or voluntary dispositions. In the case of stocks (other than Colonial) and marketable securities the duties were doubled throughout, but the full double duty in the case of other property is not reached until the consideration exceeds £1,950. Between £1,500 and £1,950 there is a graduated scale of increases, and below £1,500 the duty remains the same as before.

The duties on leases, other than certain small transactions, were affected, also on leases of allotment, etc., marketable securities to bearer, share warrants and stock certificates to bearer, mortgage, bond, debenture, covenant, etc., loan capital and bonus issues, etc.

(v) *Customs and Excise*

Total receipts in 1947-8 were provisionally £1,421 millions (i.e., £10 millions more than the estimate), of which Customs yielded £791 millions and Excise £630 millions. The estimates for the current financial year are Customs £820½ millions and Excise £726½ millions, totalling £1,547 millions.

The major part of the increase is accounted for by beer, an increase of £41 millions, purchase tax £31 millions, spirits £15 millions, and tobacco £12 millions. The estimate for oil remains at about the same level as last year's receipts, while duties under the *Import Duties Act*, 1932, are expected to yield £5 millions less and Entertainments nearly £4 millions less.

An increase is made in the Customs duties on tobacco, spirits, wines and beer. The duty on tobacco is increased by 3s. 4d. per lb., so that 20 full-size cigarettes cost 3s. 6d., compared with 3s. 4d. in 1947, and small cigarettes 2s. 7d. compared with 2s. 6d. Beer is increased by 19s. 1½d. per 36 gallons, the equivalent of 1d. per pint on the retail price ; spirits by £1 per proof gallon and liqueurs by 27s. per proof gallon.

The new rates incorporate certain changes consequential on the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade concluded at Geneva on 30th October, 1947.

The Excise duties on tobacco, spirits and beer are increased by the same amount as the Customs duties.

(vi) *Entertainment Duty*

Reduced duties on payments for admission to "living" entertainments, from 30th May, 1948, are among the Budget measures. Duty on a price of less than 1s. is repealed ; the duty is levied at the rate of 1d. per 5d. or part of 5d. on that part of the price above 1s.

(vii) *Purchase Tax*

A great simplification of the complex system of purchase tax rates first introduced in 1940 was proposed in the 1948 Budget. The whole range is now reclassified into four categories, exempt, 33½ per cent, 66½ per cent, and 100 per cent of the wholesale value.

The majority of "utility" articles, essential domestic and industrial appliances and equipment and surgical appliances are exempt. Non-utility clothing, certain domestic and office fittings including lighting appliances, wireless receiving sets and most essential toilet preparations, drugs and medicines and passenger road vehicles are charged at 33½ per cent. Soft-furnishing fabrics (non-utility), the

majority of domestic and office furniture (non-utility), musical instruments, non-industrial, military or scientific photography equipment, space and water heating appliances of a kind suitable for operation from electric and gas mains, and most passenger road vehicles of a retail value of more than £1,280 came within the 66½ per cent range. The "luxury" group, charged at 100 per cent, includes articles made of fur, domestic cases, bags, etc., made of leather, hide or skin, clocks, watches and accessories made wholly or largely of precious metal, other precious metal-ware, jewellery, mirrors and cut-glass ware, other precious and semi-precious articles and perfumes.

(e) Financial Controls

Three important financial Bills, designed to include all the sanctions necessary to implement the Government's economic policy, became law in 1946 and 1947.

The Bank of England Act, 1946, contains powers which if used could exert a considerable influence on the pattern of short-term lending. *The Borrowing (Control and Guarantees) Act*, 1946, was designed to control operations in the New Capital Market and to encourage real capital development when conditions permit. *The Exchange Control Act*, 1947, is an instrument through which the centralisation of Britain's foreign resources and income is made possible while the problem of scarce currencies remains.

(i) *The Bank of England Act*

Under this Act, existing capital stock was transferred to the Treasury and replaced by Government stock, the latter redeemable at par, with not less than three months' notice, on or after 5th April, 1966.

The Governor, Deputy-Governor and Directors, reduced from 24 to 16, are now appointed by the Crown.

A most important clause, designed to co-ordinate general banking with the needs of industry, gives new powers over the commercial banking system. The initiative rests with the Bank, which may, in the public interest, request information from and make recommendations to the banks without Treasury sanction; the latter, however, cannot direct the banks without the agreement of the Bank. No such request or recommendation may be made with respect to the affairs of any particular customer, nor may a banker be compelled to put such a request into effect without an opportunity of making representations.

(ii) *The Borrowing (Control and Guarantees) Act*

The first provision of this Act gives the Treasury permanent powers of controlling Capital Issues on the lines of Regulation 6 of the Defence (Finance) Regulations of 1939, which had already been extended for five years to bridge the gap between war-time and normal peace-time mobilisation of resources. The Act provides for Treasury control of the borrowing (other than from a bank in the normal course of business) of over £10,000 in any twelve months, and of the raising of money; the issue of securities and the circulation of offers of overseas securities for subscription, sale or exchange is also controlled. (This control remains in the hands of the Capital Issues Committee.)

It is also provided that the Treasury may guarantee loans for the reconstruction or development of industry, provided that the aggregate capital amount (principal and interest only) of the loans in respect of which guarantees are issued in any one financial year shall not exceed £50 millions.

(iii) *The Exchange Control Act*

The control of sterling exchange and the centralisation of Britain's foreign resources and income were an essential part of our economic mobilisation for total war. Such control is still an essential part of our economic equipment, although numerous Defence (Finance) Regulations issued during the war lost their *raison*

d'être with the end of the war and the growth of new types of financial problems. The *Exchange Control Act* cut out unnecessary regulations and added appropriate ones where necessary, i.e., it amended the controls to suit existing conditions.

The Act restricts dealing in gold and foreign currencies except with authorised dealers who are obliged to buy from and sell to the Exchange Equalisation Account and requires the surrender by sale to authorised dealers of holdings of specified currencies. The maintenance of exchange rates is based on, and the central supply of exchange fed through, this ultimate canalisation of transactions.

Payments to persons outside the Scheduled Territories without Treasury permission are prohibited; permission is, however, freely given for payments for authorised current transactions. There is also a prohibition of payments within the Scheduled Territories as consideration for or in association with the acquisition of money or property outside the Scheduled Territories.

War-time control over the issue and transfer of securities where non-residents are concerned still applies, but a new control over foreign and bearer securities was introduced by the Act. Under peace-time conditions new safeguards were needed to prevent the unauthorised transfer of British-owned securities to foreign ownership. Existing controls were adequate in the case of securities on a United Kingdom register, but it was impossible to exercise control over the others, viz., British bearer securities and foreign securities. For this reason such securities are now required to be lodged with an approved bank. Ownership is, of course, not affected, but the document of title must remain with the bank.

The export and import of currency notes and securities are still controlled, and powers are provided to guard against evasion of proper payment for our exports of goods. There are also provisions concerning the prompt collection of debts, the control of foreign subsidiaries and related matters.

Exchange control is necessary to prevent capital investment abroad except where it clearly serves the national interest, and to prevent such speculative movements of short-term capital as so disturbed our pre-war international exchange. Since capital movements are not easy to distinguish from current transactions, the whole range of foreign payments must be supervised.

(iv) *Price Control*

Price control dates from the *Prices of Goods Act*, 1939, which was formulated to prevent the prices of certain goods, as specified by the Board of Trade, rising by a sum greater than the increase in certain costs. In most cases the specified basic prices were those in force on 21st September, 1939. Price-regulated goods are defined in Board of Trade Orders, and price increases are all subject to order.

A Central Price Regulation Committee and seventeen local committees were set up under the Act, the former to advise and assist the Board of Trade in connection with the Act and to co-ordinate the activities of the local committees, the latter concerned primarily with enforcement of the Act and the Orders made thereunder.

Further provisions and amendments to the original Act were laid down in the *Goods and Services (Price Control) Act*, 1941, and the functions of the Central Price Regulation Committee were correspondingly enlarged to deal with the new Act.

Government price control over a wide range of goods is mainly the responsibility of the Board of Trade, which is concerned with all consumer goods other than food, the responsibility of the Ministry of Food, and engineering consumer goods the control of which is exercised on behalf of the Ministries of Works and Supply. Raw materials are the responsibility of the Board of Trade with the exception of metals, building materials and coal, oil, etc., which are controlled respectively by the Ministries of Supply, Works, and Fuel and Power.

In certain cases the trader is obliged to fix his prices in accordance with the requirements of the *Prices of Goods Act*, i.e., his net cash profit remains the same

as before the war. This applies to certain consumer goods. The majority of other prices are subject either to maximum price orders or to voluntary agreements made between the Central Price Regulation Committee (on behalf of the appropriate Department) and traders. The general effect of these two methods is the same. Maximum price orders remove the trader's obligation to fix his prices as stipulated by the Act, and, instead, fix his price or margin of profit for him, subject, where practicable, to an overriding "ceiling" price which he may not exceed in any circumstances. The wholesaler and retailer may add to the cost price a fixed gross margin to cover both expenses and profit, again subject in certain cases to a ceiling price. The manufacturer may be controlled either by a fixed net margin on cost, or by means of a "standstill" on his lawful price, the latter being the price as controlled by the *Prices of Goods Act*.

Maximum price orders fixing ceiling prices apply to certain consumer goods and raw materials. Certain of the consumer goods, chiefly essentials such as clothing, furniture, etc., many of which are classified as "utility," are subject to orders made under the *Goods and Services (Price Control) Acts*; the majority, however, and all the raw materials in this group, are subject to orders made under Defence Regulations, fixing ceiling prices.

A wide range of non-utility consumption goods are subject to orders made under the *Goods and Services (Price Control) Acts* fixing ceiling prices, or standstills on a war-time year, or prescribing "cost plus," i.e., cost plus a fixed percentage.

Voluntary agreements cover a considerable range of raw materials and certain consumer goods.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer announced in the House of Commons on 12th February, 1948, that a large category of goods was to be transferred from the provisions of the *Prices of Goods Act*, 1939, to a standstill on prices charged during the two months ended 31st January, 1948, and that the Schedule of Costs in maximum price orders where goods are subject to cost plus was to be amended, so that any labour costs attributable to a wage increase after the date of the White Paper should not be taken into account in fixing prices.

The first standstill orders published by the Board of Trade in accordance with this change in price control policy came into force on 3rd May, 1948. They cover most cotton and woollen textiles, clothing and footwear, certain domestic goods including pottery and hollow-ware, and a very wide range of goods included in the "Miscellaneous" category.

In general, the manufacturer's maximum price is fixed at the lowest price charged for similar goods in the "basic" period, in most cases the two months ended 31st January, 1948. Where seasonal trades are concerned, the basic period is the two months preceding the date of the last sale, provided that sales were made in the ten months preceding 30th November, 1947.

Certain manufacturer's prices are left as before (where previous control was adequate), viz., cost plus a prescribed percentage, but any increase in wages, salaries or commission agreed to after 14th February, 1948, may no longer be included in the assessment of cost.

The price for new types of goods, and goods not sold within any period above, is cost of production and sale plus a prescribed percentage, but, again, increases in wages, etc., may not be included in cost.

The maximum price that wholesalers, retailers and other distributors may charge is, in general, the price paid by them plus a prescribed percentage.

The general purpose of the proposed orders is to provide, so far as is possible within the field of price control, that for a wide range of goods there will be no price or profit increase sufficient to strengthen increased wage demands. They are designed both to replace out-of-date controls and to combat inflation.

(v) *Capital Investment*

The Government's plan to cut gross capital investment in the United Kingdom was introduced by the Prime Minister in August, 1947, and considered in more detail in relation to export targets by the Chancellor of the Exchequer in September.

The core of Britain's economic problem is the overseas balance of payments, in particular with the dollar countries, and the non-financial steps taken to remedy the situation are, alone, inadequate. Resources, which could have been used to better advantage in the export industries, have been utilised for internal development.

Details of the curtailment of Britain's capital construction programme are given in the White Paper, *Capital Investment in 1948* (Cmd. 7268). The object of the programme is primarily to save supplies of steel, fuel and some dollar imports such as timber, and also to bring about a measure of deflation.

There are, on the one hand, cuts in expenditure on construction which reduce the annual rate by £125 millions by the end of 1948. Powers of direction of labour were reintroduced in 1947 through the Registration for Employment and the Control of Engagement Orders, 1947, and the cuts in constructional investment should provide the labour so badly needed in the essential industries.

Capital expenditure on plant, machinery and vehicles is also cut, the forecast rate for the end of 1948 being reduced by £155 millions. These measures are designed to release materials for export where both home and export markets are competing for the same capital goods.

ESTIMATED GROSS INVESTMENT IN THE UNITED KINGDOM
(£ millions)

	Estimated annual rate, mid 1947	Original forecast, year 1948	Estimated annual rate, end 1948
Construction	850	825	700
Plant, Machinery and Vehicles ..	610	680	525
Shipbuilding and Miscellaneous ..	90	95	95
	1,550	1,600	1,320

Plans had been made, both by private industry and public bodies, for a very high level of investment in 1948, which, despite shortages of labour and materials, would probably have reached a figure of £1,600 millions. The proposed reduction of £180 millions for the year will operate progressively with the result that the actual rate of investment will decrease during the year, finally reaching an estimated annual rate of £1,320 millions.

(vi) *The Local Government Act*

This Act of March, 1948 (see p. 13), is designed to amend the law relating to Exchequer and local authority grants to local authorities and to other bodies, and the law relating to rating and valuation for rating purposes; to provide payments for the benefit of local authorities by the British Transport Commission, the British Electricity Authority, and the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board.

It centralises valuation machinery, thus making it possible to estimate the true resources and needs of the different local authorities, but it is agreed that the rating authority should be given a third party's right of appeal against the Inland Revenue's valuation.

The proposed average level of rates throughout the country is reduced by 3s. 4d. on last year's figure.

Government assistance is concentrated where it is most needed, i.e., on the poorer authorities, by substituting an Exchequer Equalisation grant for the discarded Block grant. The Exchequer makes grants to all those local authorities which possess less than the national average of rateable value. The Government reserves the right to check the whole of the authority's expenditure, but it cannot withhold the grant without presenting a report and seeking the approval of Parliament. The total grant for 1948-9 is to be over £51 millions.

Nationalised transport and electricity undertakings will, in lieu of rates, make payments to be distributed by the Minister to the rating authorities.

(f) Finance Corporations

There are two finance corporations designed to supplement existing capital market institutions. Before the war certain types of industrial and commercial borrower experienced difficulty in meeting their needs through the existing market machinery, and the corporations provide a new source of finance for British industry. The joint finance will come almost entirely from joint stock bank funds. The capital and loan power of the corporations is limited to a total of £170 millions, out of which the banks are authorised to provide all the loans (£130 millions) and £14½ millions in share capital.

(i) *The Industrial and Commercial Finance Corporation*

I.C.F.C. caters especially for the small borrower. Its function is to make loans which normally would be too long for bank credit, or too short and too small for the new issue market. In the past such loans have been raised from a variety of sources, through merchant banks, hire-purchase institutions, etc., or through private negotiations. The Corporation not only extends these facilities but canalises them, providing centralised machinery, not previously in existence, to cater for highly varied needs and circumstances.

The Corporation is a developing institution, the significance of which cannot clearly be seen before it has had time to develop its own particular sphere of business within the framework of financial machinery. It is not a banking institution, and although its shareholders are the member banks, the conduct of its business is entirely in its own hands.

There are two main types of business performed by the Corporation. It provides advances repayable by instalments over periods up to twenty years at four to four and a half per cent. It also provides "risk" capital by taking up preference or ordinary shares, or notes carrying an option to convert into shares. The policy in such cases of permanent financing is to participate both in the risk and the profit, to insist that part of the latter be ploughed back into the business, and to maintain regular contact with the borrower, in whose hands alone, however, the business of management remains.

(ii) *The Finance Corporation for Industry*

This Corporation is designed to operate on a much larger scale than I.C.F.C. It is intended to cater for the long-term capital needs of firms or industries which should, in the national interest, be in a position to borrow, but for some reason, financial or otherwise, are not in a position to raise capital through the ordinary channels. Its purpose is to provide finance for industry with a view to assisting in speedy rehabilitation or development in the national interest, thereby also assisting in the maintenance and increase, if necessary, of employment.

It is not concerned with the management of industry; its scope is purely financial, and concerned both with post-war reconstruction needs and with long-term industrial development.

F.C.I. is a private limited company owned jointly by a large group of insurance companies, trust companies and the Bank of England in the proportion of 40 : 30 : 30 per cent respectively. The bulk of the Corporation's resources is provided by the exercise of its borrowing powers of £100 millions, provided mainly by the Clearing and Scottish banks. The Corporation is formally independent of the authorities.

The banks provide favourable terms for F.C.I.'s borrowings, and since it is the latter's policy to pay only moderate dividends on its capital, it is in a position to offer special terms to borrowers.

F.C.I. is expected to cater largely for basic industries, although in its first period it operated in a wide field including diesel engineering, shipping, chemicals, gas turbines, electrical components, etc. It is, like I.C.F.C., a developing institution.

4. RATIONING

(a) Food

Food rationing in the United Kingdom was introduced by the Government in January, 1940, for butter, bacon and sugar. Since then rationing has been extended until nearly all important foods are controlled by rationing or other distribution schemes. Bread was rationed from July, 1946, to July, 1948. Under the ordinary rationing scheme the consumer is restricted to a fixed quantity of each food for a fixed period.

Points Rationing Scheme

A more flexible system of rationing to cover a wide range of other foods is provided by the "points" scheme. Each consumer is allowed in a period of four weeks, a given number of "points" which can be spent at any shop at which the foods included in the scheme are available. Points values are varied periodically to balance supply and demand.

The following foods are included (August, 1948) in the scheme : canned meats, certain types of canned fish, pulses, dried fruits, canned fruit, canned beans, peas and tomatoes, canned sweet puddings, condensed milk, certain types of special cheeses, syrup and treacle, mincemeat, imported jam and marmalade, table jellies, shredded suet, dried egg, biscuits.

Examples of points values (at 1st August, 1948) are :—

Biscuits (chocolate)		16 points per lb.
„ (sweet or semi-sweet)		10 points per lb.
„ (unsweetened)		4 points per lb.
Canned Sardines		1 point per small tin.
Canned Salmon		12 to 28 points per 1 lb. tin according to grade.
Currants and Sultanias		12 points per lb.
Dried Egg		10 points per container (=12 eggs).
Imported Jams		1 to 10 points per lb. according to variety.

Special distribution schemes

The following foods are not strictly "rationed" but are controlled through distribution schemes: milk, eggs, oranges and bananas.

Eggs : Ordinary consumers receive one egg at each allocation. 53 allocations were made in 1946 and 58 in 1947. Children between 6 months and 2 years and certain classes of invalids receive priority supplies at the rate of 3 eggs a week. Expectant mothers receive an extra shell egg at each allocation and expectant mothers and children under 5 a point-free packet of dried egg every eight weeks.

Oranges : Allocations are made as supplies are available. Restriction is suspended when supplies are plentiful. Children under 5 have priority when supplies are limited.

Bananas : Allocations are made, when supplies are available, to children and adolescents under 18, to expectant mothers and to persons over 70.

Weekly Rations and Allowances for Domestic Consumers (a) at 31st August, 1948.

Commodity	Normal Adult	Child under 5 years old	Expectant Mother
Meat	1s. (b)	6d.	1s. 6d.
Bacon	2 oz.	2 oz.	2 oz.
Butter	7 oz.	7 oz.	7 oz.
Margarine }	(not more than 3 oz.)	3 oz. butter	on average)
Cooking fat			
Cheese (c)	1 oz.	1 oz.	1 oz.
Preserves* (d) (per 4-week period) ..	1½ oz.	1½ oz.	1½ oz.
Sugar (d)	1 lb.	1 lb.	1 lb.
Milk, fresh	8 oz.	8 oz.	8 oz.
	2-3½ pints according to season	Child 0-1 : 12 pints ; Child 1-5 : 7 pints ; Adolescent (5-18) : 3½ pints ; Handicapped child (5-16) : 7 pints	7 pints extra
Tea	2 oz. (e)	—	2 oz.
Points (per 4-week period)	28	28	28
Chocolate and sweets (per 4-week period)	12 oz.	12 oz.	12 oz.

(a) Certain classes of invalids receive in addition special allowances of foodstuffs in accordance with scales based on the recommendations of the Food Rationing (Special Diets) Advisory Committee of the Medical Research Council.

(b) Coal miners working underground are entitled to additional ration of 1s.

(c) Special cheese ration of 12 oz. is given to certain categories of workers without catering facilities. Vegetarians are allowed 12 oz. cheese.

(d) Special additional issues of sugar are made from time to time for domestic jam-making. Sugar may be taken instead of preserves at the rate of 1 lb. of sugar for 1 lb. of preserves. Imported jam or marmalade may be bought on points.

(e) 3 oz. for persons over 70.

* Derationed from 5th December, 1948.

Welfare Foods Service

The Welfare Foods Service, which from 21st July, 1946, became associated with the Family Allowances Scheme, provides certain specified goods at subsidised rates for expectant mothers, children and adolescents. The foods are—milk, at 1½d. a pint to expectant mothers, children under 5, and handicapped children between 5 and 16 who are unable to attend school ; national dried milk, at 10½d. a tin to children under one year as an alternative to liquid milk ; orange juice, at 5d. a bottle to expectant mothers and children under 5 ; cod liver oil free of charge to expectant mothers and children under 5 ; vitamin A and D tablets, free of charge to expectant mothers as an alternative to cod liver oil and also to mothers for 30 weeks after confinement.

National milk cocoa is supplied to young persons under 21 who are employed workers, students, or members of youth organisations, for sale at a maximum price of 1½d. for a third of a pint, and orange juice jelly for patients in hospitals.

Milk and orange juice are supplied free to those unable to pay for them.

Schoolchildren receive one-third of a pint of milk free daily in school and the provision of meals in schools is being extended as rapidly as circumstances permit (see under EDUCATION).

Catering Establishments

Coupons are not required to be surrendered for meals taken in catering establishments, but persons *staying* in a catering establishment for four nights or more must produce their ration books to the management in order that the appropriate coupons may be cancelled.

Supplies of rationed or controlled foods to catering establishments are restricted to amounts roughly equivalent to those obtained by the domestic consumer. The allowance is, in general, related to the number of meals or hot beverages served.

Special higher scales of allowances apply to industrial works canteens, commercial catering establishments catering wholly or mainly for industrial workers, schools, nurseries, youth centres, etc. Industrial canteens are divided into two classes, those serving workers in specified heavy industries (Category A) receiving larger allowances than others.

A pie scheme, for the distribution of meat pies and packed meals, operates in rural areas for the benefit of agricultural workers without canteen facilities.

(b) Clothes and Textiles

Clothes rationing was introduced on 1st June, 1941. A coupon value is allotted to every rationed article and persons of all ages have coupons. Hats are unrationed. The rationing of footwear ceased in July, 1948. The allowance was 24 coupons for the 6-month period to the end of August, 1948, but a further 12 coupons were granted in May. The allowance for the period September, 1948, to February, 1949, is 24 coupons.

Examples of coupon values are : overcoat (wool and fully lined) 15 coupons ; men's 3-piece suit 20 ; dress 5-11 according to material ; stockings 0-2.

Special Coupon Allowances : All children and young persons of 18 years and under receive 10 extra coupons in each period (about twice a year). Additional supplements of 10 to 20 coupons are given to children in the older age groups when announced. Expectant mothers receive 80 extra coupons, and certain classes of workers (e.g., industrial and agricultural workers) receive 10 supplementary coupons each year.

Sheets and towels are rationed, but not woollen blankets.

(c) Soap

Each consumer is entitled to 3 " rations " of soap per 4-week period. A " ration " may be any one of the following quantities : 4 oz. of hard soap ; 3 oz. of toilet soap ; 6 oz. of soft soap ; 6 oz. of No. 1 soap powder ; 12 oz. of No. 2 soap powder ; 3 oz. of soap flakes ; ½ pint of No. 1 liquid soap ; 1 pint of No. 2 liquid soap.

Children under 2 are entitled to 8 " rations " per 4-week period, and children between 2 and 5, 4 " rations " per 4-week period. Special allowances are granted to chimney sweeps and limbless persons.

(d) Domestic Fuel

Fuel supplies are controlled under the *Fuel and Lighting (Coal) Order*, 1941, which came into force in January, 1942.

Domestic coal and coalite are rationed. Allowances for the year 1st May, 1948-30th April, 1949, are as follows :—

(a) House and Kitchen Coal and Coalite

Southern Regions—the maximum for the 12 months is 34 cwt., of which not more than 20 cwt. may be supplied between 1st May and 31st October, and not more than 24 cwt. in the winter period, November–April.

Northern Regions—the maximum for the 12 months is 50 cwt., of which not more than 20 cwt. may be supplied between 1st May and 31st October, and not more than 30 cwt. during the winter period.

(b) Coke, Anthracite, Welsh and Kent Dry Steam Coal and all manufactured fuels other than Coalite

The maximum for the 12 months is 40 cwt., of which not more than 20 cwt. may be supplied each six-month period May–October or November–April.

(c) Consumers who rely entirely on coal for cooking or who have other special needs may apply to the local Fuel Overseer for additional supplies.

(e) Furniture

New furniture is only made according to “utility” specifications. From 23rd June, 1948, the sale of utility furniture is no longer confined to holders of units, but these priority classes still have the first claim on supplies.

The priority classes to whom the Board of Trade issues units consist of persons whose homes have been bombed or who are setting up house for the first time and have been married since 1st September, 1939, or who are intending to marry within three months, or are setting up home because they have young children or are expecting a child. The normal allowance is 60 units. Examples of unit values are :

Double bed, 4 ft. or 4 ft. 6 in., wooden 5 units, metal 2 ; 3 ft. wooden bed 3 units, metal 1 unit ; dining table 6 units, kitchen table 1 unit ; upholstered fire-side chair 6 units, dining chair 1 ; sideboard 8 units.

(f) Petrol and Travel

(i) Petrol :

The basic petrol ration, which was provided for private cars and motor cycles from September, 1939, when motor fuel rationing began, until June, 1942, was revived in June, 1945. Owing to Britain's shortage of dollar funds it was found necessary as a measure of economy to suspend the basic ration again as from 1st October, 1947.

The position was reviewed in the spring of 1948 in the light of a report by an independent Committee which was set up to advise on measures to strengthen the provisions against evasions of the petrol rationing regulations. The Committee recommended *inter alia* that to preclude substantial misuse of petrol it should be arranged that petrol for commercial vehicles should be dyed red and should contain a chemical detector and that severe penalties should be imposed on dealers who supply commercial red petrol for use in private motor vehicles and on private motorists in whose car or motor cycle such petrol is found.

By these measures and by a further cut in allowances for goods vehicles it was expected to save 120,000 tons of petrol a year. This enabled a standard ration to be provided for unrestricted use in respect of private cars and motor cycles without increasing the existing rate of consumption of motor fuel in the United Kingdom.

From 1st June, 1948, a standard ration of petrol sufficient for about 90 miles motoring a month (i.e., about one-third of the basic ration at the August, 1946–October, 1947, level) was made available in respect of all currently licensed private cars and motor cycles. Unlike the basic ration, the amount of the standard ration

is, however, taken into account in assessing the quantity to be issued as supplementary allowances for travel by car or motor cycle for business, professional or necessary domestic purposes. (This arrangement is to be gradually discontinued.)

Standard ration coupons are issued in book form for a six-month period and all the coupons for the first period (June-November, 1948) are valid for use at any time during this period.

Petrol for Overseas Visitors : From 19th April, 1948, visitors from outside the British Isles who bring a private car or motor cycle with them or who buy a new one in the United Kingdom for subsequent export are allowed petrol sufficient for the direct journey from port of entry or place of purchase to their furthest destination in the United Kingdom and thence to their port of departure, plus a touring allowance sufficient for 600 miles for a stay of up to 14 days, or for 800 miles for a stay of between 15 and 21 days, or for 1,000 miles for a stay of over 21 days and up to one calendar month.

For visitors staying more than one month allowances for the equivalent of an additional 300 miles motoring per month will be made for a second or third month. No special allowances will be issued for longer visits, but coupons will be valid for six months from the date of arrival or purchase of car. The maximum touring allowance for a stay of three months or more will therefore provide 1,600 miles motoring.

(ii) *Overseas Travel :*

A travel ban was imposed as from 1st October, 1947, by the suspension of provision of foreign currency for the purpose of pleasure travel abroad.

Pleasure travel to a limited number of foreign countries with allowances of £35 in a year for adults and £25 for children was resumed on 1st May, 1948. The countries included were : Switzerland, Austria, Holland, France, Portugal, Denmark, Norway, Italy, Sweden and, from 5th August, Spain.

5. INDUSTRY

(a) Overall Pattern

The first fact which distinguishes the British economy from those of other countries is the marked predominance of industry over agriculture. Excluding such basic industries and services as mining, transport, distributive trades and commerce, which in their different ways serve all other forms of economic activity, and taking manufacturing industry alone, it will be found that the latter employs seven times as many people as agriculture.

In the absence of an up-to-date Census of Production the best indication of the pattern of industry can be obtained from the distribution of the employed population, deducting from the total (19,904,000 in June, 1948) those engaged in the Armed Forces and Auxiliary Services (847,000), National and Local Government Service (2,128,000), Public Utility Services (275,000), Transport and Shipping (1,472,000), Commerce and Finance and professional and personal service (2,157,000), the distributive trades (2,354,000), Building and Civil Engineering (1,375,000), Mining and Quarrying (839,000), and Civil Defence, Fire Services and Police (91,000).

This leaves those engaged in agriculture, horticulture and fishing (1,116,000), and in the manufacturing industries (7,250,000) (of whom 2,010,000 were working on export orders).

The figure for manufacturing industries need not be analysed completely. The *Ministry of Labour Gazette* (April, 1948) gave the figures set out below relating to firms employing more than 10 persons in various industry groups. The difference of 740,000 between the total given in the preceding paragraph and that in the table below represents the numbers employed by small firms with ten or fewer employees (there were 132,338 such firms with 536,000 employees at the time of the last Census of Production in 1935).

Industry Group	No. of Estabs. with more than 10 Employees	No. of Employees (000's)
Metal Manufacture.. .. .	996	381
Shipbuilding and Ship-repairing	702	191
Engineering	7,420	1,252
Motors, Aircraft and other Vehicles ..	2,163	502
Metal Goods (including Scientific Instruments)	7,636	943
Chemicals, Explosives, Oils, Paints, etc. ..	2,342	351
Textiles	5,869	803
Leather and Leather Goods	952	60
Clothing	4,215	335
Boots and Shoes	956	113
Food, Drink and Tobacco	5,756	519
Woodworking and Furniture	3,882	215
Paper and Printing	4,044	381
Bricks, Pottery, Glass, Cast Stone and Cement	2,529	257
Other Manufacturing Industries	1,578	207
TOTAL	51,040	6,510

(Source : Ministry of Labour Gazette, April, 1948.)

(b) Basic Industries

The review of Britain's post-war economic problems above stressed the important contribution Britain's manufacturing industry must make to the solution of overseas payments difficulties. A rough calculation attributes one-fifth of British manufacturing costs to imported materials, four-fifths to internal costs ; apart from labour, chiefly transport and fuel and power. Primary importance in the post-war period has therefore been attached to reorganising and improving the efficiency of certain " basic " industries. These industries are " basic " in the sense that they provide a general basis for all industrial output ; and an important part of manufacturing costs. In addition to transport (which is dealt with in Section IV) the " basic " industries may be taken as coal, gas and electricity. Although steel is itself a manufacturing industry in the usual sense of the word, its contribution to industry is so general that it can also be taken as a " basic " industry.

Reorganisation of the Basic Industries

The Government in power has elected to apply the policy of nationalisation (see p. 37) to these industries, i.e., transport, coal, gas, electricity and steel. Of these, Acts of Parliament are already on the Statute Book in regard to transport, coal, gas and electricity. The Government has announced its intention of nationalising the steel industry, but a measure has not yet been introduced into the House of Commons.

(i) Coal

The coal-mining industry was brought into public ownership by the Coal Industry Nationalisation Act, which became law on 12th July, 1946. The ownership of the mineral rights had already passed to the State under the Coal Mines Act of 1938. The assets of the concerns taken over were vested in the N.C.B. on 1st January, 1947, and with the exception of a few small mines are now operated by the National Coal

Board set up by the former Act. The property taken over by the N.C.B. included some 1,500 collieries (formerly owned by some 800 concerns). Over 400 small mines, nearly half the country's coking and by-product plants, about 1,000,000 acres of land, 100,000 dwelling-houses, 200,000 railway wagons, wharves, and much other property. The N.C.B. employs about three-quarters of a million people. The Coal Nationalisation Act does not apply to Northern Ireland, where little coal is worked. The N.C.B. is responsible to the Minister of Fuel and Power, who exercises a general supervision over the programmes and operations of the Board.

Coal is Britain's key industry, supplying over nine-tenths of the primary sources of power. The N.C.B. is undertaking a complete reorganisation of the industry as a long-term project extending over many years. An account of the first steps can be found in the first and second Annual Report of the Board covering the period up to 31st December, 1947.

The immediate post-war task for the coal industry is to raise the level of coal output. Substantial increases both in total production and in productivity per man are required. The following key figures illustrate the pre-war and post-war position.

TABLE 1

Output	Actual 1947	Target 1948	Actual 1st half 1948	Year's increase required	Increase end June 1948
Deep - mined (52 weeks)	mn. tons 186.3	mn. tons 200	mn. tons 99.8	mn. tons 13.7	mn. tons 5.3
Opencast (52 weeks)	10.2	11	6.3 (26 weeks)	0.8	1.7 (26 weeks)
Manpower on col- liery books ..	'000s 718 (end year)	'000s 750 (end year)	'000s 725 (end year)	'000s 32	'000s 7 (26 weeks)

TABLE 2

	Pro- duction	Inland consump- tion	Exports and bunkers	End period stocks '000 tons	Nos. on Colliery books Wkly. Av. '000's	Av'ge Output (tons per manshift)	
	Weekly Average: '000 tons					Overall	At coal- face
1937	4,610	3,610	1,000	N.A.	778	1.17	3.00
1945	3,506	3,440	157	12,314	709	1.00	2.70
1946	3,646	3,582	176	8,279	697	1.03	2.76
1947	3,787	3,457	104	16,357	712	1.07	2.85
1948 (26 weeks)	4,044	3,787	252		723	1.10	2.90

(Source : (1) Monthly Digest of Statistics ; (2) Economic Survey for 1948.)

(ii) *The Gas Supply Industry*

The Gas Supply Industry was brought into public ownership by the Gas Act, 1948, which became law on 30th July, 1948. The assets of the concerns taken over will vest in twelve Area Boards, set up under the Act, on or after 1st April, 1949. A central body known as the Gas Council will co-ordinate the activities of the Area Boards. Both the Gas Council and the Area Boards are responsible to the Minister of Fuel and Power, the powers of the Minister in relation to these bodies being laid down in the Act. The property to be taken over by the Area Gas Boards includes that previously owned by over 1,000 gas undertakings in Great Britain. The Act does not apply to Northern Ireland.

The Gas Act replaces a complicated legal structure of ownership. The Gas Supply Industry in Britain has consisted of undertakings owned by (a) Local Authorities, (b) Statutory Companies, (c) Non-statutory Companies. Different types of ownership have predominated in different areas, e.g., in the south of England gas has been supplied almost entirely by companies; in Scotland mainly by local authorities. The Gas Industry has been subject to extensive legislative control, including price and dividend control. In addition to numerous General Acts and many hundreds of Departmental Orders, there were in force, up to 1937, no fewer than 3,278 Private Acts and Special Orders relating to gas supply.

Gas supply in Great Britain is based on the carbonisation of coal, and to a small extent on gas oil, supplies of natural gases in Great Britain being negligible. This is illustrated by the following facts relating to 1947.

1. *Basic Materials Consumed*

Coal : 22,554,000 tons.

Gas Oil : 171,765,000 gallons.

2. *Basic Materials Produced*

Gas : 432,413 million cubic feet.

Coke : 12.44 million tons.

Tar : 2,274,000 tons.

Benzole : 19.5 million gallons.

Sulphate of Ammonia : 87,000 tons.

(Source : Ministry of Fuel and Power : Statistical Digest 1946-7.)

In 1947 there were 1,038 undertakings, namely :—

	No.	Production mn. cu. feet	Percentage of total make
Local Authorities	275	158,945	36.8
Statutory Companies	402	261,584	60.5
Non-Statutory Companies	361	11,884	2.7
TOTAL	1,038	432,413	100
Coke Oven Gas Purchased	..	53,984	
Total Gas Available	..	486,397	

(Source : Ministry of Fuel and Power : Statistical Digest 1946-7.)

The principal use of gas in Britain is for domestic heating and cooking. Eight families out of ten cook by gas, and nearly every household in the country has a gas supply. Approximately two-thirds of the total gas sold is supplied for domestic purposes, and the remaining one-third for industrial, commercial and other purposes. But industrial gas is of growing importance. Since 1938 the domestic consumption of gas has grown by 44 per cent, industrial consumption by 70 per cent. Gas is used in some 4,000 industries and trades in Great Britain.

CONSUMPTION OF GAS IN GREAT BRITAIN, 1946

	Gas Sold mn. cu. feet	Percentage	'000's of Meters
Domestic	293,670	65.8	10,922
Industrial	92 145	20.7	105
Commercial	53,445	11.9	580
Miscellaneous	6,826	1.6	6
TOTAL	446,086	100	11,613

(Source : Ministry of Fuel and Power : Statistical Digest 1946-7.)

The following figures of production relate to both statutory and non-statutory undertakings.

GAS PRODUCTION—WEEKLY AVERAGES

Million Therms

	Made at Gasworks	Bought from Coke- ovens	Total available at Gasworks
1938	29.2	2.7	31.9
1945	34.4	4.7	39.1
1946	37.6	4.8	42.4
1947	39.0	4.9	43.9

(Source : Monthly Digest of Statistics.)

(iii) The Electricity Supply Industry

The *Electricity Act, 1947*, became law on 13th August, 1947. On 1st April, 1948, under the Act, the great majority of existing electricity undertakings in Great Britain were dissolved and their assets were vested in one existing public body, and fifteen new public bodies created by the Act. The broad effect of the Act is to vest generation and mains transmission assets (including the existing "Grid") in a central body known as the British Electricity Authority, and the distribution assets in fourteen Area Boards who receive their supply from the Central Authority. In a defined area covering the North of Scotland, however, both generation and distribution assets are vested in one existing public body, the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board set up under the *Hydro-Electric Development (Scotland) Act, 1943*. Among the bodies who will disappear as a result of the Act are the Electricity Commission, hitherto the principal national planning agency, and the Central Electricity Board, an executive partner in the national planning of generation and mains transmission. The Act does not apply to Northern Ireland.

As in the case of gas, the new arrangements for electricity supply replace a complicated structure of ownership which has developed since the first *Electric Lighting Act* was passed in 1882. The mosaic pattern of electricity supply in Britain has been built up by the Parliamentary grant of exclusive rights to supply consumers in a given area. The major cities and towns have either generated and distributed electricity in their areas through municipal enterprises or through private companies operating under terminable franchise. Other local authority areas have been covered by a private "power company" with permanent rights under a Special Act to supply bulk energy in a defined area. Some "power companies" have supplied only

authorised distributors in their area ; others have obtained general distribution rights in part of their areas, but these general distribution rights have been subject to local authority purchase-rights. In some cases supply rights were exercised by Joint Boards of several local authorities or Joint Electricity Authorities consisting of both local authorities and private undertakings. Together with the Central Electricity Board and North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board these classes of electricity suppliers were known as "authorised undertakers." Many company suppliers were controlled by electricity "holding companies" who were not themselves "authorised undertakers." Among those who have generated mainly for their own use, some have also distributed, but they have had neither the rights nor obligations of authorised undertakers, and have been classed as non-statutory undertakings.

TABLE 1

AUTHORISED UNDERTAKINGS IN GREAT BRITAIN 31st MARCH, 1947

Central Electricity Board	1
North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board	1
Joint Electricity Authorities	3
Joint Boards	6
Local Authorities	363
Companies	190
	564

(Source : Electricity Commission : 22nd Annual Report.)

The generation of electricity in Great Britain is based almost wholly on coal, as shown in the following table.

TABLE 2

SOURCE OF GENERATION BY AUTHORISED UNDERTAKERS IN 1946

Source	Mn. Units	Percentage
Steam Plant—		
From coal, coke and oil firing	42,733	97.16
From waste heat and refuse	48	0.11
Water Power Plant	1,128	2.56
Oil Engine Plant	74	0.17
Gas Engine Plant	1	—
TOTAL	43,984	100.00

(Source : Ministry of Fuel and Power : Statistical Digest 1946-7.)

Generation in Great Britain has hitherto been carried out by authorised undertakers, by certain power company stations other than authorised undertakers, by certain railway and transport authorities for their own use, by the principal factory and colliery trades for their own use, by the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board, and by the Central Electricity Board at one station. Since 1926 generation has been progressively concentrated in "selected stations" under the directional control of, but not owned by, the Central Electricity Board. Of the 142 "selected stations" in existence at 31st December, 1947, all except one were owned or leased by "authorised undertakers."

Out of a total of 42,580 million units generated in 1947 at the 334 stations owned or leased by authorised undertakers alone, 40,855 million units or 96 per cent were generated at 140 selected stations. The 194 non-selected stations accounted for only 4 per cent of this total.*

Since 1938 production of electricity in Great Britain has been rapidly expanded, but demand has increased even more rapidly. The figures of production in Table 4 relate to Authorised Undertakers.

TABLE 3
GENERATION OF ELECTRICITY IN GREAT BRITAIN

	Units generated (mns.)	
	1938	1947
Authorised undertakers (including power company stations) :		
Public Authorities	13,143	24,475
Companies	11,229	18,105
Railway Authorities	1,331	1,404

(Source : Ministry of Fuel and Power : Statistical Digest 1946-7.)

TABLE 4

Monthly Averages : Mn. Kw/hrs.				
1938	..	..	..	2,031
1945	..	..	..	3,106
1946	..	..	..	3,437
1947	..	..	..	3,548

(Source : Monthly Digest of Statistics.)

Although output has been greatly expanded, during the war it was necessary to postpone much needed expansion and replacement of generating plant. This has provided severe problems of capacity in relation to total demand and particularly in relation to peak demand. Extensive schemes for staggering the load were put into operation in the winter of 1947-8 and these will again be necessary in the winter 1948-9. Taking into account the claims on the industry of coal and steel, a preliminary estimate of the output capacity of new plant coming into service over the next few years was given in an official White Paper, "Capital Investment in 1948" (Cmd. 7268), published in December, 1947 :—

Year	Th. Kilowatts
1948	1,150
1949	1,600
1950	1,500
1951	1,500

The following estimates of the relative consumption of electricity by different categories of users in 1938, 1945, and 1947 relate to Great Britain.

* In addition there were 13 generating stations belonging to and operated by railway and transport authorities. The figures below do not include generation by factories, farms, collieries, etc., for their own use.

SALES BY AUTHORISED UNDERTAKINGS

(mn. units)

	1938	%	1945	%	1947	%
Domestic and farm premises	5,360	26.3	8,811	28.1	12,724	35.6
Commercial premises ..	3,114	15.3	3,467	11.1	3,842	10.7
Industrial premises ..	10,311	50.5	17,687	56.4	17,674	49.4
Public Lighting	367	1.8	162	0.5	179	0.5
Traction	1,249	6.1	1,236	3.9	1,362	3.8
TOTAL	20,401	100.0	31,363	100.0	35,781	100.0

(Source : Ministry of Fuel and Power : Statistical Digest 1946-7.)

(iv) *The Steel Industry*

The steel industry is the only manufacturing industry included in the present Government's programme of nationalisation. The industry is already operating under close Government control. There is extensive price control. The allocation of steel is so vital to the planning of British industrial recovery that the principal decisions are made at Cabinet level. A steel distribution scheme for consumers is administered by the Minister of Supply. Imported iron and manganese ore are purchased by the British Iron and Steel Corporation (Ore) Ltd., and distributed by them to consuming works. Similarly imported pig iron is purchased on Government account and is distributed by the British Iron and Steel Corporation ; imported scrap is also purchased on Government account and disposed of by another agency called Iron and Steel Disposals Ltd.

The sponsoring Department for the steel industry is the Ministry of Supply. From September, 1946, to September, 1948, an interim organisation was charged with a general supervision of the development of the iron and steel industry. This organisation is called the Iron and Steel Board, whose functions were announced by the Government on 19th August, 1946. The Board, with the exception of an independent Chairman, was a part-time body, consisting of three representatives of industry, two Trade Union representatives, and an official of the Treasury.

The Government has adopted, and the Iron and Steel Board temporarily supervised the implementation of, an extensive development plan for the industry. The general shape of this plan is based on a report drawn up after the war by the British Iron and Steel Federation and the Joint Iron Council, and communicated to the Minister of Supply. This report on the post-war position and prospects of the U.K. iron and steel industry can be found in an official White Paper, Cmd. 6811, published in May, 1946.

The demand for steel from the U.K. is running at record levels, due to the exceptionally high demand for capital equipment both from domestic and overseas sources. The report referred to estimated home and export demand by the years 1950-5 at 13 million and 3 million ingot tons respectively. Demand has been running at about this level in 1948. Although considerable progress has been made in the planned extension of capacity, the most intensive working of plant has been necessary to sustain the record outputs of primary steel and iron products which the industry has been able to achieve in 1948.

The official 1948 targets for iron and steel are set out below. A target of 14 million ingot tons was originally set for primary steel production. The efforts of the industry and the availability of materials have already enabled this target to be raised to 14½ million ingot tons.

TARGETS FOR IRON AND STEEL : 1948

million tons

	Actual 1947 (53 weeks)	Target 1948	Actual 1st half 1948	Year's Increase Required	Increase 1st half 1948
Steel Ingots and Castings (production)	12.7	14.5	7.6 (26 weeks)	1.8	1.6 (26 weeks)
Iron Castings (deliveries) ..	2.8	3.0	1.6 (26 weeks)	0.2	0.3 (26 weeks)

In 1948 steel is the principal limiting factor on the expansion of British industrial output, despite the record levels of home production of crude steel. The finishing capacity of the British industry has for long been in excess of the capacity to produce the primary products. Before the war considerable quantities of finished steel, and of semi-finished steel for re-rolling, were imported. These supplies are now difficult to obtain. In conjunction with the necessity to export some quantities of finished steel directly to implement trade agreements, this means that the expansion of finished steel supplies to British industry depends meantime on the expansion of primary production by the home industry. These facts are illustrated in the following table.

U.K. PRODUCTION AND CONSUMPTION OF STEEL : '000 TONS

Year	Home Production of Ingots and Castings	Net Imports of Ingots and semi- finished (Ingot Equiv.)	Ingots Available in U.K. for finishing	Finished Equivalent	Imports of finished	Exports of finished	Home Consumption of finished (including Stocks)
1935	9,859	399	10,258	7,694	575	1,761	6,508
1936	11,785	620	12,405	9,304	510	1,660	8,154
1937	12,984	674	13,658	10,244	580	1,939	8,885
1938	10,398	401	10,799	8,099	447	1,384	7,162
1939	13,221	939	14,160	10,620	491	1,175	9,936
1940	12,975	2,294	15,269	11,452	805	853	11,404
1941	12,312	2,652	14,964	10,565	754	364	10,955
1942	12,942	1,861	14,803	10,451	472	181	10,742
1943	13,031	1,658	14,689	10,370	835	80	11,125
1944	12,142	1,099	13,241	9,481	394	164	9,711
1945	11,824	126	11,950	8,664	32	477	8,219
1946	12,695	424	13,119	9,511	45	1,672	7,884
1947	12,725	358	13,083	9,341	74	1,279	8,136
1948 (est.)	14,500	340	14,840	10,700	230	1,330	9,600

(Source : Iron and Steel Board.)

Recent high levels of home production of crude steel are given in the following tables. In 1948 home production of ingots and castings will be nearly 2 million tons above the 1947 level. This will provide about 1½ million more tons of finished steel to British industry in 1948 than in 1947, net imports of semi-finished and net exports of finished steel being approximately at 1947 levels.

U.K. HOME PRODUCTION OF PIG IRON, STEEL INGOTS AND CASTINGS : '000 TONS

	PIG IRON			
	1947		1948	
	Weekly Average	Annual Rate	Weekly Average	Annual Rate
First Quarter	134	6,984	175	9,084
Second quarter	142	7,358	182	9,459
STEEL INGOTS AND CASTINGS				
First Quarter	216	11,232	287	14,940
Second Quarter	244	12,688	295	15,324

U.K. DELIVERIES OF IRON CASTINGS : '000 TONS

	1947		1948	
	Weekly Average	Annual Rate	Weekly Average	Annual Rate
First Quarter	46.4	2,413	61.3	3,188
Second Quarter	55.5	2,886	63.7	3,315

(Source : Monthly Digest of Statistics.)

6. EMPLOYMENT

(a) Manpower

(i) Demobilisation

By the end of the war with Japan in August, 1945, the reallocation of men and women from the Armed Forces to civilian employment had already begun. The aim was an orderly demobilisation related to the capacity of industry to absorb labour as production was switched from war to peace purposes. Release from the Forces was based on the individual's age and length of service ; in addition, a small proportion of men and women were released early because of their qualifications for urgent reconstruction work. Demobilisation proceeded smoothly, and the heavy unemployment which followed the 1914-18 war was avoided. By 31st December, 1947, nearly 5 million men and women had been demobilised (a net loss to the Forces of nearly 4 million).

The call-up of women to the Forces had already ceased before May, 1945. For men the call-up continued with some modifications, but the period of compulsory military service was gradually reduced. The *National Service Act, 1947*, provides that from 1st January, 1949, men will be called up for 12 months' service followed by 6 years in the Territorial Army or other appropriate Reserve.

(ii) Relaxation of War-time Labour Controls

Strict labour controls had operated during the war ; the Government's policy was to relax these as quickly as possible. The four main controls were : registration

for employment ; issue of directions to work ; control of engagements for employment (whereby the Ministry of Labour and National Service was able to control the engagement for other work of persons already employed) ; and Essential Work Orders, which contained further measures to promote stability of employment in certain industries.

In conditions where there were many unfilled jobs, the labour force had to be built up (or in some cases maintained) in certain industries vital for reconstruction and for the export trade, but the intention was to rely as far as possible on the voluntary movement of labour. The field of control was sharply restricted at the end of the war in Europe ; the process continued as circumstances permitted and by the summer of 1947 only coalmining and agriculture, where vital national interests required the maintenance of the level of employment, were subject to control. Workers cannot leave these industries to take up work in other industries without the permission of the Ministry of Labour and National Service. Maldistribution of labour led to the reimposition of certain controls in the latter part of 1947 under the *Control of Engagement Order* (1947) and the *Registration for Employment Order* (1947). (See Organisation of Employment below.)

(iii) *The Labour Force*

The two main employment problems of the post-war period have been a general shortage of labour, with demand unsatisfied in most fields, and the difficulty of ensuring that labour is where it is most urgently needed. The first problem arose from the enormous demand after the war for most goods and services and from the need for increased exports ; the second from the war-time reduction of manpower in certain industries from which some found it difficult to recover, from the relative unattractiveness of conditions in certain industries, and from the wide range of work to be had in many areas.

The increase in total working population over the figure for 1939 is due almost entirely to additional women workers.

At the end of the war there was naturally an outflow of elderly workers and of women. A further loss has come recently from the raising of the school-leaving age in April, 1947, from 14 to 15, estimated to cost industry 370,000 juvenile entrants in a full year. The Government hold that this loss is justified by consideration of the interests of the children and the long-term interests of the country.

To offset these losses and to increase the labour force the Government has appealed to workers to defer retirement ; and recruiting campaigns have been held for women workers. The *Registration for Employment Order* (1947) is intended to bring into employment a small number of people not gainfully employed or not gainfully occupied as well as to withdraw labour from unessential occupations. During 1947 the period of compulsory military service was reduced from 18 months to 12, and plans for the reduction of the armed forces have been accelerated so that by the end of 1948 their strength will be 730,000 compared with 1,113,000 at the end of 1947.

Employment of prisoners of war, mainly on heavy unskilled work, had begun during the war, with special provisions to safeguard the interests of British workers, and by mid-1945 224,400 were employed (131,800 Italians and 92,600 Germans). By July, 1946, the Italian prisoners were repatriated. The number of Germans, however, was increased, reaching a peak of 301,000 in September, 1946. Repatriation began in October, 1946, and by the end of August, 1948, was completed.

Foreign workers have been, and are being, recruited, and by 30th June, 1948, 164,085 had been placed in employment in Great Britain under official post-war schemes. Prisoners of war are encouraged to stay at work in Great Britain under civilian conditions, instead of being repatriated.

The Government have sought the equivalent of additional labour in overtime working, and its appeals have met with considerable success.

DISTRIBUTION OF TOTAL MANPOWER IN GREAT BRITAIN (1)

Thousands

	1939 June	1945 June	1946 June	1947 June	1948 June
Total working population	19,750	21,649	20,523	20,357	20,286
Males	14,656	14,881	14,638	14,618	14,559
Females	5,094	6,768	5,885	5,739	5,727
Total employed in Armed Forces, Civil Defence, and Industry ..	18,480	21,506	19,447	19,942	19,904
Armed Forces and Auxiliary Services	480	5,090	2,032	1,292	847
Males	480	4,653	1,895	1,228	807
Females	—	437	137	64	40
Total in Civil Employment	18,000	16,416	17,415	18,650	19,057
Males	13,163	10,133	11,803	13,047	13,431
Females	4,837	6,283	5,612	5,603	5,626
Agriculture, horticulture and fish- ing	950	1,041	1,078	1,080	1,116
Mining and quarrying	873	799	806	829	839
National Government Service :—					
Non-industrial Civil Service ..	408	715	709	712	715
Others	131	279	298	285	276
Local Government Service ..	846	909	1,004	1,085	1,137
Civil Defence, National Fire Ser- vice, and Police	80	127	88	91	91
Gas, water and electricity supply ..	242	196	240	266	275
Transport and shipping	1,233	1,252	1,367	1,417	1,472
Manufacturing industries—total ..	6,815	6,820	6,587	7,101	7,250
Orders for Export (2)	990	410	1,310	1,525	2,010
Building and Civil Engineering ..	1,310	722	1,184	1,344	1,375
Distributive Trades	2,887	1,958	2,170	2,319	2,354
Commerce and finance, profession- al and personal service, enter- tainments, catering, laundries, etc.	2,225	1,598	1,884	2,121	2,157
Ex-members of H.M. Forces who have not yet taken up employment	—	40	700	155	110
Insured persons registered as unem- ployed	1,270	103	376	260	272

(Source : Ministry of Labour and National Service.)

(1) Males aged 14-64 and females 14-59. The figure includes employers and self-employed as well as employees, but excludes indoor private domestic service. Women in part-time paid employment are included, two being counted as one unit.

(2) Comparison of the later figures with those for 1939 may be effected by (a) differences in the amount of work indirectly for export that is included, and (b) changes in the average labour content of exports due to changes in the relative amounts of the different commodities exported.

(iv) *Distribution of Labour*

Given the labour force in the country, its distribution to the best of national interest is a vital problem, on the solution of which reconstruction and the export drive depend. It will be seen from the table that as compared with 1939 nearly one million unemployed are now absorbed into work, and more than offset the increase in numbers of the Armed Forces. The numbers employed on supplies and equipment for the Forces* fell from 3,830,000 in mid-1945 to 460,000 at end 1946 and about 350,000 at end 1947. Within the number employed in the manufacturing industries (over 400,000 more than in June, 1939), over 1,000,000 more were engaged on manufacturing orders for export in June, 1948, than in June, 1939. In the Economic Survey for 1947 (Cmd. 7046) the Government recognised that labour was badly distributed, but stated that the changes necessary to achieve an ideal distribution would require no less than full war-time direction: even then, transfer would be limited by lack of accommodation. In fact, the policy of the Government was to relax controls, and from shortly after the end of the war until the autumn of 1947 the Government had no direct control over the movement of labour which would enable it to increase employment in any industry. Indirect methods were used, however: publicity, the persuasive influence of local Employment Exchanges on workers seeking new jobs, the system of allocations and licences, and inducements such as the provision of new houses and the supply of extra consumer goods in certain areas. Distribution of labour did not improve sufficiently rapidly, and in November, 1947, the Government named a group of industries as undermanned, the following being the more important: agriculture, coalmining, tinplate, iron-founding, cotton-spinning, cotton-weaving, wool, silk and rayon, and pottery. The slow increase in numbers in these industries and in certain others was the main reason for the *Control of Engagement Order*, 1947 (see Manpower Organisation below), designed to increase the flow of labour from certain categories of workers who changed their jobs into "first preference" industries and of withholding labour from less essential industries.

(v) *Wage Rates, Weekly Earnings, Hours of Work and Labour Disputes*

1. *Wage Rates*

By the end of the war, the index of average weekly wage rates in all industries covered by the statistics had risen to 150, taking September, 1939, as 100. There was then a sharp rise to 164 by July, 1946, after which there was a period of relative stability until mid-1947 when the figure stood at 167. In the second part of the year, however, wage increases in some of the major industries raised this to 173. A new index, introduced in February, 1948, which takes the level of wage rates at 30th June, 1947, as 100, stood at 106 at 30th June, 1948.

2. *Weekly earnings*

The following table shows average earnings in the last pay week in October, 1947, in most manufacturing industries and some of the main non-manufacturing industries. The calculation is based on the estimated numbers of wage-earners employed in each of those industries.

Men (21 years and over)	128s. 1d.
Youths and boys (under 21 years)	51s. 10d.
Women (18 years and over) full-time workers	69s. 7d.
Girls (under 18 years)	43s. 9d.

*To reduce employers' returns this figure is no longer obtained separately.

For all workers covered average weekly earnings in October, 1947, were 103 per cent higher than in October, 1938.

3. Hours of Work

Since 1920 there had been little reduction in hours of labour (that is the number of hours beyond which overtime rates are payable). In 1946, however, some 2,100,000 workers had a reduction in hours of labour; and in 1947 about 5,200,000 workers had their hours of labour reduced by an average of about $3\frac{1}{2}$ hours a week. This made the standard working week in most industries 44-45 hours. In 1946 between 11 and 12 million wage-earners enjoyed holidays with pay.

4. Labour Disputes

The stability of industrial relations in Great Britain is indicated by the small number of working days lost as a result of disputes: from VJ-Day until 31st December, 1947, about $6\frac{1}{2}$ million days were lost, compared with $65\frac{1}{2}$ million days lost in the corresponding period after the 1914-18 war.

[The Ministry of Labour and National Service is responsible for keeping under review the employment and manpower situation in Great Britain.]

(b) Labour Policy

(i) Economic Survey for 1948

In *Economic Survey for 1948* (Cmd. 7344) it was estimated that in 1948 (unlike 1947) manpower would not generally be a limiting factor in production, because, mainly, of shortage of steel and of raw materials from dollar sources which would cause bottlenecks.

During 1948 the industrial population is likely to increase by 133,000, the reduction in the size of the Armed Forces more than offsetting the probable decline of some 323,000 in the working population.

TABLE XX (Economic Survey 1948)

TOTAL MANPOWER 1947-8
(Thousands)

	End 1946 (actual)	Mid- 1947 (actual)	End 1947 (actual)	Mid- 1948 (forecast)	* Mid- 1948 (actual)	End 1948 (forecast)
Total working population	20,413	20,357	20,423	20,210	20,286	20,100
Strength of Armed Forces	1,439	1,292	1,113	835	847	730†
Ex-Service men and women on release leave	300	155	123	115	110	50
Total industrial population	18,674	18,910	19,187	19,260	19,329	19,320
Of whom men	12,983	13,240	13,475	13,600	13,752	13,720
Of whom women	5,691	5,670	5,712	5,660	5,687	5,600

*Figures added from *Ministry of Labour Gazette*. †Revised to 810 (see p. 25).

The expected increase in manpower is in men ; the number of women is expected to fall.

Supplies of raw materials and the uncertainties of the economic situation are likely to be the main determining factors in the ideal distribution of labour ; and although requirements are indicated in a number of industries it is in only three that the attainment of a given labour force is described as " a target in the full sense of the term." These are : coal, agriculture and textiles, and for them the following figures and targets are given :—

From TABLE XXI (Economic Survey 1948)

	Mid- 1939 (actual)	End 1946 (actual)	Mid- 1947 (actual)	End 1947 (actual)	Mid- 1948 (actual)	End 1948 Target
Coal (total manpower) (on colliery books)	773 (735)	730 (690)	757 (716)	758 (718)	765 (725)	790 (750)
Agriculture	910	1,046	1,045	1,055	1,081	1,110
Textiles	798	615	626	652	674	760

Certain industries will need fewer workers, notably building and civil engineering, which will be able to spare 164,000 workers.

To meet the economic situation as it is now, or as it may change, will require a higher degree of mobility of labour than there is at present.

Recruitment of foreign workers will continue : for instance, in agriculture, it is hoped that 18,000 ex-prisoners of war will volunteer to remain under civilian contract, and it is hoped that the 16,000 other foreign workers employed in the autumn of 1947 will be increased by 27,000.

(ii) *Wage Policy*

After the war the Government made it clear that big increases in wage-rates would hinder recovery, but emphasised that it would not interfere with the existing methods of free negotiation and contract. It appealed for moderation in increases in wages and other forms of income and left the settling of wage-claims to the established negotiating machinery. Subsidies to consumer goods, particularly food, were continued at increasing cost in order to keep down the cost of living.

In the *Statement on Personal Incomes, Costs and Prices* (Cmd. 7321) of February, 1948, the Government pointed out the importance of keeping down the cost of production both to assist the export drive and to restrain inflationary trends. All concerned were urged not to take any action which would result in an increase in personal incomes from any source unless it was clearly in the national interest ; as, for example, if it were the only means of attracting labour to an undermanned industry. The Government declared its unwillingness to interfere directly with personal income, except by taxation, and called for co-operation in the voluntary limitation of prices, profits and wages.

(c) *Unemployment and Development Areas*

The war-time Coalition Government White Paper on Employment Policy (Cmd. 6527) published in May, 1944, indicates the general policy of the present Government, which is committed to the maintenance of a high and stable level of employment. The measures proposed in the White Paper are designed :

- (1) To secure a balanced distribution of industry and labour ;
- (2) To promote mobility of labour ;

- (3) To maintain total national expenditure at an appropriate level ;
- (4) To obtain the statistics necessary for planning (3) above ;
- (5) To maintain a reasonably stable price and wage structure.

Since the end of the war there has been—apart from a short period during the fuel crisis early in 1947—no problem of large-scale unemployment. But the problem of concentrations of unemployment in particular areas has not yet been fully solved, although the pre-war and war-time methods of dealing with this are being carried further.

Before the war, some areas in Great Britain suffered disproportionately heavy unemployment because they were too dependent upon a few industries which were either declining in importance, or were subject to violent economic changes. It was accepted, therefore, that a vigorous policy of bringing work to the workers must provide the main remedy. Rearmament and the outbreak of war led to a revival of the basic industries, and this, together with the establishment of new plants, brought to these areas a degree of prosperity unknown for many years.

It was clear that after the war special measures would again have to be taken to prevent heavy unemployment in these areas, and the Government's main aim has been to introduce a wide diversity of industry to provide enough work. The *Distribution of Industry Act, 1945*, brought together and strengthened the pre-war measures for what it significantly renamed "Development Areas"; North-East England, West Cumberland, South Wales and Monmouthshire, The Industrial Areas of Scotland, to which Wrexham and South Lancashire were subsequently added.

Between the end of 1944 and end of June, 1948, one-half by value and one-third by number (£89,355 millions out of a total of £172,979 millions and 1,183 out of a total of 3,454) of new factory buildings approved were for the Development Areas, which contain about one-seventh of the population. By 30th June, 1948, 443 new factory buildings had been completed and 530 were under construction in the Development Areas.

On 14th June, 1948, there were 101,939 insured persons registered as unemployed in the Development Areas and 274,120 in the whole of Great Britain (299,100 in the U.K., including Northern Ireland). The rate of unemployment in the Development Areas—though falling—was still higher than in the rest of the country, but the completion and manning of factories will bring the problem still nearer to solution.

(d) Organisation of Employment

(i) *The Employment Exchange Service*—The principal agency for the implementation of the manpower provisions of the White Paper, *Employment Policy* (Cmd. 6527), is the Local Office Service of the Ministry of Labour and National Service. This service is provided by approximately 1,200 Employment Exchanges and their subsidiary Employment Offices and Branch Employment Offices, which deal with the public on all local aspects of the work of the Department. A small number of special offices deal with particular types of workers, e.g., dockers and persons employed in the building and catering trades.

Local Employment Committees, composed of representatives of employers, workers and other local interests, are attached to most Employment Exchanges as advisory bodies to secure for the Department the full benefit of local knowledge and the close co-operation of employers and workpeople.

The primary function of Local Offices is to bring together employers requiring workpeople and workers seeking employment. Their aim is to provide an efficient service both to employers and workpeople and to organise the movement of labour from job to job and from district to district in such a way that employers may obtain

as quickly as possible workers suitable for their requirements, and that those in search of employment may speedily find the work best suited to their qualifications and experience.

Another important function of Local Offices is the compilation and maintenance of local employment records designed to assist in the preparation of a general assessment of the economic position and trends for the purpose of implementing the Government's policy of maintaining a high and stable level of employment.

Local Offices are also responsible for registrations under the *National Service Acts* and, where necessary, for the reference of appeals to Hardship Committees set up under the Acts. Some of these Offices are also responsible for the maintenance of the registers and for the medical examination arrangements for men liable for service with the Forces.

The following particular provisions of the Department's policy are operated through the medium of the Local Offices :

1. The administration of the *Youth Employment Service* except in those areas where local education authorities have submitted schemes to the Minister and been authorised by him to undertake this work under Section 10 of the *Employment and Training Act*, 1948.

The aims of the Service are to :—

- (a) give vocational guidance ;
- (b) place young people in suitable employment ;
- (c) keep contact with young people during adolescence.

Arrangements for the development of the *Youth Employment Service* were instituted in April, 1946, as a result of the recommendations of a Committee (commonly known as the Ince Committee) which was appointed by the Minister of Labour to consider the measures necessary to establish a comprehensive Youth Employment Service.

Since then the National Youth Employment Service, whether operated locally by the Ministry of Labour and National Service or the Education Authority, has been controlled by the Central Youth Employment Executive, staffed by officers of the Ministry of Labour and National Service, the Ministry of Education and the Scottish Education Department. This Joint Executive is part of the Ministry of Labour and National Service, which is responsible to Parliament for it. The Minister has appointed a National Youth Employment Council and separate Advisory Committees for Scotland and Wales to advise him on questions relating to the Service.

National apprenticeship and training schemes have been agreed within the past year in a very large number of industries. A scheme of grants enables boys and girls with special aptitudes to take jobs away from home, if that is their only chance of being properly trained.

2. The maintenance of the *Register of Disabled Persons*, the placing in employment or vocational training of such persons and follow-up action to ensure that they have been satisfactorily settled.

The *Disabled Persons (Employment) Act*, 1944, has as its main provision the establishment of a Register of Disabled Persons and it is compulsory for an employer of over 20 persons to employ a percentage of registered disabled persons (the standard percentage is at present 3). It should be noted that the Register is not confined to personnel discharged from the Forces, but is open to all disabled persons over 16 years of age. There were, at 19th July, 1948, 895,554 names on this Register.

In May, 1945, the Minister of Labour and National Service appointed the first Board of Directors of the *Disabled Persons Employment Corporation*. The function of this body, set up under the Act, is to make special provisions for disabled persons, who, by reason of the nature of the severity of their disablement, are unlikely to obtain employment or work on their own account except under special conditions. The Corporation, in addition to providing facilities direct, supplements the work of

voluntary organisations and may also make payments to Local Authorities. It had by September, 1948, 27 factories, and it is hoped to have 50 in operation by the end of December, 1948.

Persons less severely disabled but unable to find suitable employment without training are eligible for courses of vocational training and for grants towards further education and business training, even if they lack the war service qualifications required for the able-bodied. (See below Vocational Training Scheme, the Higher Education and Training Scheme and Grants for Training in Business Administration.) Industrial rehabilitation centres have been provided for persons not yet quite fit enough to start work or training. One of these, Egham, Surrey, is residential, while a number of non-residential centres are being started in the larger towns. Maintenance allowances are payable in all cases. (For Resettlement Grants to Disabled Persons, see below, p. 90.)

3. The operation of *Labour Controls*.

Following the end of the war labour controls were gradually relaxed and by the end of two years almost completely removed except in agriculture and coal-mining. Some controls have, however, had to be reimposed temporarily in an attempt to guide manpower into important undermanned industries.

The present controls are based on two new Orders, the *Control of Engagement Order*, 1947, and the *Registration for Employment Order*, 1947 (made under Regulation 58A of the Defence (General) Regulations, 1939), and on a limited use of the powers of direction deriving from Regulation 58A (1).

The *Control of Engagement Order*, 1947, came into force on 6th October, 1947. It ruled that men aged 18 to 50 and women aged 18 to 40 with certain exceptions might only seek work—and be sought for work—through Ministry of Labour Local Offices or approved Employment Agencies. These Local Offices and Employment Agencies try to guide labour into industries where it is needed by offering each job-seeker the choice of suitable jobs where his or her work will be of value to the national effort. In the very few cases where persons refuse to accept essential work, powers of direction can be and have been used.

Excepted from this Order are women who have living with them children of their own under 15 years of age, ex-Servicemen and women on paid resettlement leave, and persons seeking work in agriculture, coalmining, the Merchant Navy or the dockyards. Employment in a managerial, professional, administrative or executive capacity is also excepted.

The *Registration for Employment Order*, 1947, came into force on 8th December, 1947. It requires, with certain exceptions, that men aged 18 to 50 and women aged 18 to 40 not gainfully employed or not gainfully occupied, or persons engaged in street trading in towns with a population of over 20,000, during a specified period must register at a local Employment Exchange, and that persons carrying on certain unessential undertakings (e.g., Bookmaking, Night Clubs) must register particulars about themselves and their employees. The exceptions to the Order include women having household responsibilities to their husbands or to children, registered disabled persons, ex-service men and women on paid resettlement leave and persons already registered with the Ministry of Labour.

4. Recruitment under the *Vocational Training Scheme*.

The *Government Vocational Training Scheme* has been devised to help those men and women who served in the Armed Forces, Merchant Navy, full-time Civil Defence or in work of national importance, and who, owing to their service, have not had a chance to start or complete their training for a skilled occupation, or who have had their occupation interrupted by service and are in need of training to enable them to obtain employment of a satisfactory kind.

Training is given at Government Training Centres in different places throughout the country, in technical colleges and in employers' establishments. Application for training may be made in the first instance at the Local Office where the applicant's suitability is considered.

A comprehensive range of trades, ranging from agriculture to retail distribution, from building to shorthand-typing, is covered. The courses last normally for six months. Maintenance allowances are payable to persons while in training. Persons with dependants are paid higher rates than those without dependants. During the period from the inception of this scheme on 22nd July, 1945, up to 26th July, 1948, the number of trainees placed in employment was 71,840.

The Trade Unions have agreed to accept trainees who complete the course satisfactorily as though they had entered through a normal apprenticeship. In a trade where it is usual for an employee to provide his own tools he is given these free on taking up a job. The job itself is found whenever possible by the Employment Exchange.

5. The Government has safeguarded the rights of men and women returning from the Forces and full-time Civil Defence by the *Reinstatement in Civil Employment Act*, 1944. By this Act the employee must be reinstated if reasonable and practicable. In case of dispute the question is referred to a Reinstatement Committee through the local office of the Ministry of Labour and National Service. Each Committee set up by the Act consists of a chairman, an employers' representative and a representative of employed persons.

6. The *Resettlement Advice Service*, which was set up in order that all possible assistance by information and advice on personal problems and on matters affecting resettlement could be given to men and women returning from war service in the Forces, Civil Defence or industry. Special offices under the control of the Local Employment Exchange Managers have been set up in 370 cities and towns, and there are facilities for obtaining resettlement advice and information at all Employment Offices and Branch Employment Offices which work in co-operation with parent Resettlement Advice Offices.

(ii) *District Offices*. These Offices, at present 60 in number, co-ordinate the work of the Employment Exchange Service and keep under constant survey the employment position and prospects in their respective districts. They are responsible for relations with industrial organisations on the district level and for controlling the work of the District Welfare Officers and the District Disablement Resettlement Officers. Each District Office, which is under the charge of a District Officer, is also an Employment Exchange.

The larger District Offices have taken over from the District Manpower Offices, set up in war time, the duties of dealing with applications for deferment of military service and applications under the Resettlement Grants Scheme and the Interrupted Apprenticeship Scheme.

1. *Resettlement Grants* may be available for ex-service men and women and ex-members of the Merchant Navy whose service began before 1st January, 1949, if they were in business on their own account before service or if they are prevented by disablement from resuming their pre-service occupation or getting other paid employment. Grants are not available for persons entering the services after 15th August, 1945, unless they were called up under the National Service Acts or are disabled persons.

The grant is intended to help defray the cost of fitting up premises, obtaining equipment, tools, stocks and so on. The maximum grant is £150. Under a subsidiary scheme, grants may also be given to skilled workers to help them buy tools necessary to get or keep employment in their trade. These schemes do not apply to resettlement on the land, for which a separate scheme is run by the Ministry of Agriculture. Grants given under the main Resettlement Grants Scheme numbered

18,210 to 31st August, 1948, the total cost being £1,846,188. Grants under the subsidiary scheme numbered 46,259 to 30th June, 1948, the total cost being £165,993.

2. *The Interrupted Apprenticeship Scheme* enables apprentices to resume and complete training with their former employer, or, if necessary, some other employer. This scheme covers not only apprentices but learners who were undergoing a period of training in accordance with the custom of their trade. Broadly speaking, an allowance is made for the time spent in the Forces and wages are paid according to the year of training the apprentice would have reached had he not been called up. 61,658 persons had taken advantage of this scheme up to 30th June, 1948.

(iii) *Appointments Department*

The *Appointments Office Service* is intended to meet the needs of those who seek higher appointments than are normally dealt with in an Employment Exchange, i.e., those qualified, or who wish to qualify, for professional, technical, administrative, managerial and supervisory posts. There are 14 of these Appointments Offices in Great Britain staffed by officials of the Ministry of Labour and National Service.

In addition to action to bring together applicants for higher appointments and employers with appointments to offer, Appointment Offices are responsible for the executive work in connection with the following particular phases of the Department's policy.

1. *The Further Education and Training Scheme.* This operates for young men and women, who, but for their national service, would normally have been taking courses of further education, or would have been training for a business or professional career.

Awards may be made for full-time training at a university or other educational institution, or for part-time training taken in conjunction with paid employment. All awards are subject to a financial test. Full-time courses include the payment of tuition fees and a maintenance allowance which may include allowances for dependent wife and children; part-time awards cover only tuition fees. Awards granted up to July, 1948, numbered 108,192.

2. Another scheme for men and women with qualifications similar to those already mentioned was the *Business Training Scheme*. This took the form of a General Business Course lasting three months at a selected technical or commercial college, followed normally by a Specialised Business Course at an approved firm. Again the form of assistance was a monetary grant (including an allowance for wife and dependent children) subject to financial necessity.

6,253 young men and 255 young women received training under the scheme during 1946 and 1947. At the end of February, 1948, all of these but 68 were either in employment or undergoing further training.

The scheme was closed at the end of 1947, as the men coming out of the Forces were younger and would derive more benefit from longer general courses.

General Business Courses of three months duration for students over 23 years of age and of three terms for younger students are now being given by commercial and technical colleges. These courses are not confined to grant-aided students, but suitable ex-service applicants can receive grants to enable them to study under a scheme of grants for Training in Business Administration, which has succeeded the Business Training Scheme.

7. INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS AND WELFARE

(a) Industrial Relations

The structure of industrial relations in post-war Britain is established mainly on a voluntary basis. In a few cases this is supplemented, as described below, by machinery set up by the Government. The system of industrial relations rests on the organisation of employers and workers into employers' associations and trade

unions. These organisations discuss and negotiate terms and conditions of employment and other matters affecting the workpeople at their work. In some cases these negotiations are conducted simply by meetings, which are held when necessary, of the organisations concerned ; in other cases voluntary joint machinery has been established on a permanent basis. Normally these arrangements suffice to settle all questions which are raised, but provision has been made for matters not so settled to be referred for settlement to independent arbitration. In certain trades where the voluntary organisation of employers and workers is not sufficiently developed to settle such matters by collective bargaining or to secure observance throughout the trade of agreements so reached, provision has also been made by the State for this to be done by machinery set up under the *Wages Councils Act*, *Road Haulage Wages Act*, *Catering Wages Act*, and *Agricultural Wages Act*.

(i) *Employers' Organisations*

Many employers in Great Britain are members of employers' associations. Some of these associations have been in existence for a considerable period. They are generally organised on an "industry basis"—some being purely local in character and dealing with a section of an industry only, while others have a national scope and concern themselves with the whole of an industry. In some cases local associations of the above kind are organised into district or national federations.

The central organ of employers' associations is the *British Employers' Confederation*, to which the majority of employers' associations and federations are affiliated. It deals with matters affecting the interests of organised employers in their relations with their workpeople, and is recognised by the Government as the principal channel of consultation between Government Departments and representatives of organised employers as a whole on all such matters.

(ii) *Trade Unions*

A large number of workers in industry, including agriculture and public services such as transport, are organised into trade unions. These have grown up gradually and independently over a great many years, and consequently their form and organisation vary considerably. Organisation started more than two hundred years ago among the skilled craftsmen and spread later to the general labouring and unskilled classes. More recently there has been a tendency to organise among the clerical, technical and administrative workers in a number of occupations.

In 1946 the total membership of British trade unions was 8,714,000. There were 753 separate trade unions, but 84 per cent of all trade union members were in 48 big unions.

Some of the unions cover a single craft or group of crafts, although their members may be employed in a variety of industries ; others cover all grades and classes of workpeople in a particular industry or range of industries. In the case of the large general workers' unions the range of industries covered is very wide. Each union is an autonomous body with its own organisation, the basis of which is the local branch or lodge. The branch elects officers and committees and deals with all matters which can be dealt with locally. Matters of wider interest are dealt with by unions' district or national bodies, which decide the policy of the union and may engage in joint discussions with the employers' associations in the industries in which its members are employed.

The central organ of the trade union movement is the *Trades Union Congress*, to which the great majority of substantial trade unions are affiliated. An annual conference of delegates from affiliated unions settles its general policy. The General Council elected annually by the Congress as its executive body, carries this policy into effect.

The Trades Union Congress is recognised by the Government as the principal channel of consultation between the Government Departments and representatives of organised workers over the country as a whole on matters widely affecting their interests.

(iii) *Voluntary Joint Negotiating Machinery*

1. *At National level.*

While in some cases all matters affecting terms and conditions of employment are discussed on an *ad hoc* basis between the employers' organisation and the trade unions concerned, in other industries, standing bodies, generally known as *Joint Industrial Councils*, exist for dealing with such matters by joint discussion at a national level. There are at present 115 of these bodies. They are composed of representatives of both sides of the industry with in some cases an independent chairman. Their functions vary considerably, some being merely wage negotiating bodies, while the most advanced deal with a wide range of subjects affecting the interests of the industry concerned. If it is not found possible to reach agreement as to the terms of settlement, they may agree to refer the question to an independent arbitrator, or to any of the methods provided under the *Industrial Courts Acts* (see below).

2. *At district and factory level.*

Similar arrangements exist at district and factory level in many industries, where matters are either discussed between the appropriate representatives of the two sides on an *ad hoc* basis, or through regular machinery provided by District Joint Industrial Councils or similar bodies and Works Councils. Such bodies discuss the application of agreements reached at a national level to their district or factory, but as a rule have no power to alter the terms of such national agreements. They also discuss new problems which may arise, and if no solution can be found at factory or district level, these may be referred to the national body.

(iv) *Statutory Wage-Regulating Machinery*

In certain industries in which, owing to the lack of organisation among employers and workers, voluntary negotiating arrangements do not exist for the effective settlement of terms and conditions of employment or are inadequate to secure their observance by voluntary methods throughout the industry, statutory bodies known as *Wages Councils and Boards* have been set up. These are composed of representatives of employers and workers in the industries with the addition of certain independent members, and they have powers to submit to the Minister concerned, usually the Minister of Labour, proposals for minimum terms and conditions. The Minister is empowered to make an Order giving such minimum terms and conditions statutory force.

Between 2 and 3 million workers have their terms of employment determined by such statutory machinery.

(v) *State Provision for Conciliation, Arbitration and Investigation*

Under authority derived from the *Conciliation Act*, 1896, and the *Industrial Courts Act*, 1919, the Minister of Labour has certain powers to assist industry to resolve disputes which it is not found possible to dispose of by voluntary machinery. These powers are all intended to supplement and not to supersede voluntary methods and joint machinery.

To assist industry by conciliation a staff of conciliation officers forms part of the Ministry of Labour. Their duties are to keep in touch with the course of relations between employers and workers at national, district, and in some cases factory level and to assist them, if requested, to settle their problems by joint discussion and negotiation.

Disputes which cannot be settled in this way may, at the request of both parties, be referred to voluntary arbitration, either by a single arbitrator, or an *ad hoc* Board

of Arbitration, or by the Industrial Court, a permanent tribunal established under the *Industrial Courts Act*. At present, under an emergency war-time measure which remains for the time being in force, provision is also made for disputes which are reported to the Minister by one of the parties thereto, to be referred if not otherwise disposed of to the *National Arbitration Tribunal*, the decisions of which are legally binding on the parties. The Minister may also, if a dispute occurs or is apprehended which is not susceptible of settlement by any of the above methods, appoint a Court of Inquiry or Committee of Investigation. The reports of such bodies are primarily for the information of Parliament and of the public, but though not binding on the parties any recommendation made in such reports is normally accepted as the basis of a settlement of the difference.

(vi) *Liaison between the Government and Industry over Matters Affecting the Relations between Employers and Workers*

As will be seen from the foregoing paragraphs the Government is in contact with representatives of employers and workers at all levels on matters affecting their common interests. At local and district level the conciliation officers of the Ministry of Labour keep in touch with the representatives of both sides of industry, while at national level officers of the Department often attend as liaison officers in some cases, and by invitation and courtesy in others, the meetings of Joint Industrial Councils. Standing arrangements also exist for consultation between the Government and the British Employers' Confederation and Trades Union Congress through machinery provided by the *National Joint Advisory Council* on which both bodies are represented.

(vii) *Joint Consultation in Industry at Factory Level*

In addition to those arrangements already described, the purpose of which is mainly but not exclusively for discussion and settlement of terms and conditions of employment, arrangements also exist and are being extended in a number of industries, for joint consultations at factory level between employers and workers on all matters relating to production. These matters are often jointly discussed, particularly in smaller establishments, on an informal basis, and in some industries the joint bodies at all levels, national, district and factory, which discuss and negotiate terms and conditions of employment, also discuss matters relating to production. In a number of other industries separate arrangements exist for joint consultation on these matters through the machinery of *Joint Production Committees* or similar bodies, which are set up at factory level and are excluded from the discussion of matters dealt with by ordinary negotiating machinery. The constitution of these Joint Production Committees varies and in some industries is regulated by an agreement at national level between the ordinary negotiating bodies in that industry.

(b) *Industrial Welfare*

The working conditions of British workers are determined by :—

- (1) Acts of Parliament and statutory rules and orders made under their authority;
- (2) Agreements concluded between employers and trade unions ;
- (3) Standards voluntarily maintained by their employers.

(i) *Legislation*

The principal Acts involving enforcement of minimum standards of safety, health and welfare are : The *Public Health Acts*, the *Shops Acts*, the *Children and Young Persons Act*, 1933, the *Factories Acts*, the *Mines and Quarries Acts*, the *Wages Council Act*, 1945, the *Catering Wages Act*, 1943, the *Road Haulage Wages Act*, 1938, and the *Holidays with Pay Act*, 1938. Certain orders affecting welfare have also been made under *Defence Regulations*.

Under the *Public Health Acts* local authorities have power to regulate the provision of suitable sanitary conveniences in houses and at places of work and to treat workplaces which are unclean or dangerously ill-ventilated or overcrowded, as nuisances, whose abatement can be enforced.

The *Shops Acts* empower local authorities to ensure that all shops in their area have proper ventilation, temperature, lighting, sanitary and washing facilities, and that they observe the requirements of the Acts with regard to closing hours. All shops not specially exempted are required to be closed on Sunday, and at 1 p.m. on one weekday and before 8 p.m. on other weekdays except the late day (9 p.m.). The hours of work of employees under 16 are restricted to 44 per week—employees between 16-18 48 per week.

The *Children and Young Persons Act, 1933*, as modified by the *Education Act, 1944*, lays down a general ruling forbidding the employment of children under 13 and limiting the employment of children under 15 to 2 hours per day after school on school days and always between the hours of 6 a.m. and 8 p.m. Wide powers are, however, given to local authorities to make suitable exceptions to this ruling and to frame their own codes to regulate hours and conditions of employment of children in their areas.

The *Factories Act, 1937*, consolidated and amended over a century of factory legislation and added certain new provisions, particularly in regard to general welfare. The Act applies to nearly a quarter of a million industrial premises (factories, ship-yards, building operations, docks, etc.) in which over 7 million persons are employed. The central authority for its administration is the Factory Department of the Ministry of Labour and National Service. Executive responsibility for seeing that its provisions are observed and that high standards of safety, health and welfare are maintained, rests with the Factory Inspectorate, which is part of the Factory Department.

Broadly speaking, the general safety requirements of the Act comprise regulations for the safeguarding and safe working of machinery, lifting appliances and steam boilers and other pressure vessels; for safe working positions and access thereto; for prevention of explosions and for the prevention and control of fire.

These general requirements may be supplemented or modified by means of codes of Regulations to deal with special dangers arising in particular processes, plant or machines.

In workplaces where safety largely depends on such human factors as the careful handling of articles or the proper use of safeguards, control by specific legal requirements may be difficult if not impossible and Regulations may be made for the adoption of provisions for safety supervision. As a general rule, firms will voluntarily make such arrangements which include the appointment of a safety officer or a safety committee.

The requirement that all accidents, whether serious or not, involving at least three days' incapacity, should be notified to the Inspector of Factories, enables the latter to take up the means of prevention with the employer and his safety organisation.

The Act lays down general requirements with regard to cleanliness, cubic space per worker, temperature, ventilation, removal of dust and fumes, lighting, washing facilities, clothes lockers, first aid and drinking water. It regulates the hours of women and young persons, limiting regular hours to 48 per week for women and young persons aged 16-18, and to 44 for those under 16. Proper provision must be made for meal intervals, night intervals and a regular weekly rest-day. Overtime work is restricted for women and juveniles and forbidden for those under 16. Some relaxation of these provisions and of the normally strict prohibition of night-work for women and juveniles has been made in view of the need for staggering hours of work, in order to spread the electricity load. The Act also provided for the medical

examination of all factory employees under 16 by Examining Surgeons, appointed by the Chief Inspector of Factories, in order to determine their fitness for work.

Special regulations for particular industries and processes aim to prevent and control occupational disease by guarding the worker against noxious substances and other special dangers and by periodical medical examinations by the Examining Surgeons.

Regulations may also be made for medical supervision in special cases, either in individual factories or in any class of factories. As in the case of safety supervision, the employer will normally adopt such arrangements on a voluntary basis.

The *Factory (Canteens) Order*, 1943, made under Defence Regulations, empowers the Chief Inspector of Factories to direct that a canteen where hot meals can be purchased be set up in any factory with over 250 workers.

The *Factories Act*, 1948, which received the Royal Assent on 30th July, strengthened and modified certain provisions of the *Factories Act*, 1937.

Mines and Quarries Acts, of which the most important is the *Coal Mines Act*, 1912, form the basis of an elaborate statutory safety code dealing with underground ventilation, support of underground workings, winding and haulage, alternative exits, explosive risks, rescue squads and first aid, competency examinations for managers, surveyors and inspectors, and the detailed conduct of mining operations. The employment of women and children underground has been prohibited since 1842.

Under the *Coal Nationalisation Act*, 1946, the *National Coal Board*, which assumed the direction of industry on 1st January, 1947, was expressly charged with responsibility for promoting the safety, health and welfare of its employees. Responsibility for the administration of the *Mines and Quarries Acts* and for assisting the National Coal Board to maintain the highest standards rests with the Mines and Quarries Department of the Ministry of Fuel and Power. Executive responsibility lies with the Mines and Quarries Inspectorate, which is part of the department.

Under the *Agricultural Wages Act*, 1924, the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries is empowered to give statutory effect to recommendations on wages and hours of agricultural workers, made to him by the Agricultural Wages Board. Under the *Road Haulage Act*, the *Catering Wages Act* and the *Wages Councils Act*, the Minister of Labour and National Service has powers to give effect to the recommendations of other similar statutory bodies for fixing wages, hours, and conditions of work in certain industries lacking adequate voluntary organisation. (See *Industrial Relations*, p. 91). Under the *Holidays with Pay Act*, 1938, the recommendations of all statutory wage-fixing bodies can include the granting of up to seven days paid holiday annually in addition to the six regular public holidays.

The adequacy of welfare legislation in establishments outside the scope of the *Factories Act* and *Mines and Quarries Acts* is at present the subject of a Home Office inquiry.

(ii) *Welfare in Practice*

Government welfare authorities, employers, trade unions and other voluntary associations combine to achieve welfare standards considerably higher than those prescribed by law. Welfare expenditure of individual firms is very variable, but may cost a progressive firm over £40 per worker per year. Much of the time and work of the Factory Inspectors and Advisers (who numbered 366 in October, 1948) and of the Mines and Quarries Inspectors (who numbered about 150 in October, 1948) is devoted to the promotion of these higher standards.

1. *Hours of Work* : Hours of work, as fixed mainly by voluntary agreement, average out at 44-45 per week—3½ hours less than the statutory maximum. An increasing number of workers receive two weeks' paid holiday in addition to public

holidays. Some 99 per cent of manual workers are entitled to at least a week's paid holiday in addition to the six statutory holidays.

2. *Safety* : The Accident Prevention Movement, a voluntary educational campaign, is strongly supported by the Factory and Mines and Quarries Inspectorates. Inspectors conduct research into safety problems, including the safety aspects of machine design and specification, circulate expert advice by personal exhortation, lectures and literature, and encourage the appointment of Safety Officers and the formation of Accident Prevention Committees.

In road, rail and air transport most of the work is outside the jurisdiction of the Factory Inspectorate, but elaborate safety codes are laid down by the Railway Executive, the London Transport Executive and the Air Corporations.

The Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents helps the Accident Prevention Movement by providing posters and pamphlets and by organising training courses for Safety Officers.

Fatal industrial accidents have tended to diminish during the 20th century. They rose somewhat in factories during the early years of World War II. Since then, however, there has been a further decline. Fatal accidents in factories numbered 851 in 1947. Fatal accidents in mines numbered 618 (0.34 per 100,000 manshifts) in 1947.

3. *Health and Welfare* : An increasing number of firms provide a whole-time or part-time doctor, an industrial nurse, a canteen with hot meals ; pay part or all of the cost of clubs and sports grounds, operate retirement and sickness insurance schemes, supplementing the State insurance schemes ; and afford training and educational facilities. Some have their own nursing homes or rehabilitation centres. A few actually finance scholarships for employees' children, or run their own residential college for their employees.

The Post Office, British Railways, and the London Transport Executive all voluntarily provide medical supervision for their workers. Between 1939 and 1947 the number of factories employing whole or part-time doctors increased from 35 and 70 to 305 and 1,475. The number of factory canteens in factories employing both over and under 250 workers at the end of 1946 was 12,106. There were also some 1,000 colliery canteens providing meals for about 98 per cent of coal-miners. All the larger coal-mines have pit-head baths, and medical centres are being established next to these baths.

In raising their standards of health and welfare manufacturing firms have the assistance of the Factory Department of the Ministry of Labour and National Service as well as various official and voluntary bodies, such as the Industrial Health Research Board, a subsidiary of the official Medical Research Council, the Central Council for Health Education, a voluntary body, and the Industrial Welfare Society, an association of progressive employers. The National Coal Board similarly has the help of the Ministry of Fuel and Power and of the Miners' Welfare Commission, a statutory body financed by a levy on the output of coal.

More and more emphasis is being put on the social and psychological aspects of health and welfare. One result of this shift of emphasis is the Industrial Rehabilitation Centre at Roffey Park, Sussex, founded by 170 leading firms for the treatment of industrial misfits and employees suffering from indeterminate ill health. Others are the growth of joint consultation at factory floor level and the increased importance attached to personnel management. Between 1939 and 1944 the number of whole-time and part-time personnel managers and welfare officers increased from about 1,500 to about 6,000, and this growth seems to have continued since, though perhaps more slowly. A Personnel Management Branch was attached to the Factory Department in January, 1946. Four-year part-time courses in personnel management are now being started at a number of technical colleges.

III. SOCIAL SERVICES

1. STATE AND VOLUNTARY SERVICES

(a) Introduction

In Britain the State is now responsible, either through central or local government authorities, for a range of services covering subsistence for the needy, education and health services for all, housing, employment or maintenance, the care of the aged and the handicapped and the nutrition of mothers and children, besides sickness and industrial injury benefits, widows' and retirement pensions and children's allowances.

Co-operation : None of the services has been imposed by the State upon an unwilling public. All of them are the result of co-operative effort between the successive Governments and the people whom they governed. As the new ideas were born and translated into reality, there has been no attempt to destroy the spirit of voluntary service which had in most cases inspired them. Where voluntary organisations were doing good work, they have been encouraged to continue, whether in school, hospital, or factory or in the provision of houses. It is the function of the State to supplement the services and provide financial assistance, to see that they are brought within the reach of every citizen, to ensure that the necessary standards are maintained, and to hold a balance so that the needs of everyone are considered and as far as possible met.

The needs of war stimulated the development of machinery for joint consultation and joint action between voluntary societies working on the same problems. The Standing Conference of Voluntary Organisations provided the means by which the statutory authorities could approach the voluntary societies in connection with welfare and social work in relation to war conditions. The same pressure of events caused the State to increase its assistance to voluntary organisations from which it was seeking help.

War-time Developments : Some of the measures introduced to provide for social needs arising out of the late war have passed permanently into the social service system. The national nutrition schemes, which supply free or cheap milk and vitamin supplements to mothers and young children, and meals to many more schoolchildren than ever before, are, for instance, to go on. Similarly the practice, adopted during the war by the Minister of Health and certain of the local authorities, of employing Welfare Officers to be responsible for the welfare of those evacuated is continuing for the benefit of other children and old people.

These measures were only a part of the constructive work done during the war years. It was during the war years, too, that the idea of social security for all "from the cradle to the grave" was first given expression under official auspices in the Beveridge Report. It was during the war that the new national health service was first discussed, that a new Education Act was passed, and that preliminary steps were taken to plan post-war programmes of housing and town and country planning.

(b) Voluntary Organisations

Voluntary organisations were the pioneers of nearly all of the social services. They provided schools, hospitals, clinics, dispensaries, and social and recreational clubs before these were provided by the State. They made themselves responsible for the welfare of the very young and the very old, the homeless and the handicapped, before it was generally accepted that the whole community had a responsibility towards these people. Where the services and the facilities they provided were good, they have been encouraged to continue and given State support ; and it has been

expressly and officially stated that in the new, expanded services they will still have an important part to play.

(i) *Co-ordination of voluntary services* : The number of voluntary charitable societies and institutions in Britain runs into thousands. Some of them are large and some are small and local in character. Some have general aims and others have been established for a particular purpose. All are at present showing a tendency towards co-ordination—towards joining up with other societies and with Local Authorities engaged on the same work.

Foremost among societies providing general social service are the *National Council of Social Service* and the *Family Welfare Association*. The National Council of Social Service was established to create a closer link between the machinery of Government and the voluntary activities of the ordinary citizen ; to co-ordinate the activities of local councils of social service ; and to bring together national organisations concerned with special aspects of social welfare in such groups as, for example, the *National Old People's Welfare Committee*, and the *Standing Conference of National Voluntary Youth Organisations*. The Family Welfare Association works on personal lines to help any individual or family in need or difficulty. It has a number of District Committees in London and family case work agencies affiliated to it in the provinces.

The major societies caring for homeless children are to-day represented on the *National Council of Associated Children's Homes*. Some twenty societies concerned with maternity and child welfare have members on the *National Council for Maternity and Child Welfare*. There is also a *Central Council for the Care of Cripples*.

Other examples of joint consultation and action in a specialised field are the *National Association for Mental Health* (established in 1943 as the Provisional National Council for Mental Health) and the *Women's Group on Public Welfare* (originally set up in 1940 to consider the social consequences of evacuation and now concerned with a number of issues particularly affecting women).

A *National Corporation for the Care of Old People* was established in July, 1947, by the Nuffield Foundation in co-operation with the Lord Mayor's Air Raid Distress Fund. Its purpose is to stimulate and to give financial support to schemes for the welfare of the aged, to establish and demand desirable standards for old people's homes, to maintain an expert technical advisory service and to encourage and to undertake research and experiment for the welfare of old people.

(ii) *Post-war activities of voluntary war-time organisations* : Apart from the old established *British Red Cross Society*, which continues its invaluable work and is extending its activities into new fields, particularly the welfare of civilian disabled, of invalid and crippled children, and the aged and infirm, war-time organisations such as the *Women's Voluntary Services* and the *Citizens' Advice Bureaux* (of which there are still over 550) are finding, with official support, scope for their activities in post-war Britain. The Citizens' Advice Bureaux, for example, act as interpreters between the Government Departments and the ordinary citizen, and though the inquiries are somewhat fewer than during the war, more skill and time are often needed for their solution.

A new voluntary service that has arisen in response to a problem aggravated by the war is the *Marriage Guidance Council*. This was started on experimental lines during 1943 to promote education for marriage and for family life, and to provide an expert team of consultants to give advice and treatment where necessary. Centres, or panels of experts, working in conjunction with the Council have since been established in many parts of the country. A Government Committee* has recommended that a marriage welfare service sponsored by the State, but not managed as a State institution, should be evolved from the existing services and societies to give help in

* *Final Report of the Committee on Procedure in Matrimonial Causes, Cmd. 7024, Feb., 1947.*

preparation for marriage and in difficulties after marriage. In February, 1948, the Home Secretary appointed a Departmental Committee to consider on what lines marriage guidance as a form of social service could be most advantageously developed in England and Wales if assisted by Exchequer grants, and to advise on what basis Exchequer grants could properly be made to this service.

(c) The Social Worker

While the voluntary worker giving full- or part-time service has done pioneer work in many of Britain's social services and continues to play an essential part in probably every service, social services of all kinds increasingly depend for their operation primarily on the professional social worker, that is the full-time salaried worker trained in the principles and technique of social service. There are seventeen professional associations of social workers in Britain. Most of these are affiliated to the British Federation of Social Workers.

Voluntary organisations have been the pioneers in the employment and training of social workers, but it is a significant fact that central government departments and local authorities are progressively employing trained social workers in greater numbers and in more services. The late war did much to hasten this development. Such workers include children's care workers, family case workers, neighbourhood workers, youth leaders, hospital almoners, mental health workers, psychiatric social workers, women housing managers, personnel managers, probation officers and moral welfare workers. Each group forms a specified profession, but all have in common the duty to effect adjustment between statutory provision and individual needs, and to provide the personal approach so often necessary to secure for the intended beneficiaries of a service its full benefits—in short, to individualise the social services. On the other hand, it is also the task of every social worker to help those with whom he or she deals to take their full part in the life and work of the community.

Training for Social Service

Fourteen universities or university colleges in the United Kingdom offer courses in social science leading to a degree, certificate or diploma. Training for many forms of social service consists of a Diploma or Certificate course, generally of two years' duration for non-graduates and one year for graduates, followed by a short period, usually between three and twelve months, of specialised training for a particular service. Certain posts are open to holders of degrees, certificates or diplomas in social studies without further training. In these posts specialised training is usually given after appointment.

The specialised training for the various branches of social service is usually organised by the respective professional organisations.

Courses for certificates and diplomas include lectures and tutorial classes, instructional visits and practical experience under skilled supervision. A typical course covers the following range of subjects—economics, social and industrial history, psychology, sociology, public and social administration, and public health and hygiene. Details vary with the university, which makes its own regulations, but there exists a Joint University Council for Social Studies and Public Administration.

The Carnegie United Kingdom Trust has set up a committee to study the practical possibilities of establishing on a comprehensive scale, and in association with an appropriate university, a Carnegie School of Social Work for the training of social workers.

2. 5TH JULY, 1948

On 5th July, 1948, there came into force in Britain five important Acts of Parliament dealing respectively with national insurance, industrial injuries, a national

health service, the care of children, and a scheme of national assistance for those in acute need. Taken together they constitute what might well be called a new charter of social security, and when they are in full operation Britain will be able to claim that her system of security for the individual is second to none in the world.

The five Acts do not introduce any great revolutionary principle; the idea that the community is responsible for certain aspects of the welfare of the individual is not new. A system of social security based on the same principle as the one now beginning has existed in Britain for several decades. What the new Acts do is to extend and expand a system which already exists and which has been built up by stages over a period of years. If collectively they amount to the biggest single step ever taken in this direction, it is because the benefits and services which they provide will be for the first time comprehensive. With only a few exceptions every man, woman and child in the country will be covered, regardless of his social status, his wealth or his occupation. Many new forms of benefit are provided, too, covering eventualities and needs at every stage of life, from a maternity grant before birth to a payment for funeral expenses at death. With these Acts in force it is true to say that Britain, practically alone in the modern world, provides a system of social security for all from the cradle to the grave.

The new social services must, of course, be viewed against the background of the wide range of other services—education, school meals, the housing schemes of local authorities, to name only a few—which are available equally to all. It is important to remember that the provision of these services is made possible mainly by the system of differential taxation, whereby a larger proportion of this cost is borne by the more heavily taxed higher-income groups. But when one looks at the extent of the field covered by the State social services it is probably safe to say that in Britain, perhaps more than in any other country, the assessment of the obligations of the community to the individual is based upon his needs rather than upon his social position or inherited wealth.

5th July, then, marks one more stage on the long road of British social development. No one claims that the new charter is perfect; it will certainly be added to, modified and improved upon as time goes on and as experience shows where its shortcomings lie. But in spite of whatever shortcomings there may be, it puts Britain well in the forefront of progress towards complete social security.

Social security is not gained merely by insurance schemes or State-provided health services. By far the most important factor in it is the level of employment, for if a man is working at a secure job for a proper wage, he is already more than half-way on the road to security for himself and his family. Therefore the new services cannot be separated from the maintenance of full employment to which the country is pledged. Yet even at the best of times, and especially during a period of conversion like the present, there is inevitably a certain amount of occasional short-term unemployment due to men changing jobs or to irregularities in the distribution of workers and jobs. Safeguards for the individual against unemployment are therefore still needed, though it is hoped by everyone that the large-scale prolonged unemployment of the past has been banished for ever.

Again, even a man in a good and secure job has a right to help from the community in case of accident, illness or whatever misfortune may befall him, and his right does not depend on his social or economic status. It is the universality of the new schemes which is their most striking feature, since everyone is entitled to benefit from them. Similarly everyone can receive help from the community to assist him over the normal eventualities of parenthood and old age.

The charter as a whole is, in effect, an expression of the duty of the community to the individual. By his work and his social conduct the individual helps the community, and in return the community helps him when he is in need of help. The retention of the principle of contributions means that these social benefits are

not simply a form of charity which pauperises the individual, but the fact that the individual does not have to pay the whole cost himself means that society is not blind to its duties.

In conception the scheme is a compromise between fully State-financed services and services completely paid for by contributions, just as in administration it is a compromise between centralism and devolution of responsibility. In each case the compromise can be adjusted in the light of changing needs, and the scheme retains the advantages of flexibility without losing the other advantages of uniformity.

This division of responsibility between the central Government, the local authorities and the individual himself is perhaps the keynote of the whole, but it is the individual for whom the whole exists. In a democratic country such as Britain that is as it should be.

3. NATIONAL INSURANCE AND ASSISTANCE

Four measures designed to secure a complete reorganisation and unification of the social insurance and assistance services in Britain are now on the Statute Book. This unification is a matter on which all political parties are agreed. In March, 1943, Mr. Churchill, as Prime Minister in the Coalition Government, said : "... You must rank me and my colleagues as strong partisans of national compulsory insurance for all classes, for all purposes, from the cradle to the grave," and in the King's Speech opening the first session of the new Parliament (15th August, 1945) it was stated : "... You will be asked to approve measures to provide a comprehensive scheme of insurance against industrial injuries ... to extend the existing scheme of social insurance (and to establish a national health service)."

(a) Summary of Benefits

The four measures—*National Insurance Act, 1946* ; *Family Allowances Act, 1945* ; *National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act, 1946* ; and *National Assistance Act, 1948*—protect every citizen of the United Kingdom against all major disasters or disabilities which economic ill-fortune or mortality can inflict. He or she is insured, by the receipt of substantial benefits, against loss of subsistence or earning power from the contingencies of unemployment, injury, sickness, or retirement. A mother gets a maternity benefit ; a family gets an allowance for every child after the first. A widow receives a pension, and a guardian an allowance for each child in his or her care. At death a grant is paid to meet funeral and other expenses. These benefits are received in return for (compulsory) contributions by the citizen, supplemented by the employer and/or the State. Details of the benefits and of the contributions are given below under the analysis of each of the four Acts, but the main items may be roughly summarised here.

BENEFITS

	Basic Rate	Extra Allowances and Conditions
<i>Family Allowance :</i> Allowance	5s. per week	For each child after first.
<i>National Insurance :</i> Unemployment or Sickness Benefit ..	26s. per week	16s. per week for wife or adult dependant ; 7s. 6d. for first child.

BENEFITS (*Contd.*)

	Basic Rate	Extra Allowances and Conditions
Maternity : Grant £4 Benefit 36s. per week for 13 weeks Attendance Allowance 20s. per week for 4 weeks		For gainfully occupied woman. For housewife
Widowhood : Allowance .. 36s. per week for 13 weeks Mother's Allowance Pension .. 26s. per week		7s. 6d. for first child Pension normally payable after age 50 (40 if follows widowed mother's allowance)
Orphanhood : Guardian's Allowance 12s. per week		For each child
Death Grant .. £20 (£6-£15 for child according to age)		
Industrial Injury : Benefit or Pension .. 45s. per week (Total Disablement : proportionate benefits for		16s. per week for wife or adult dependant. 7s. 6d. per week for first child partial disablement)
National Assistance : For Householder .. 24s. per week For Other Adult .. 20s. per week		Plus allowance for rent. 16s. for wife. Children's allowances according to age. 15s. supplement for blind or tuberculous person.

CONTRIBUTIONS (weekly)

	Employed Person	Employer	Self-Employed Person	Non-Employed Person
Men over 18	4s. 11d.	4s. 2d.	6s. 2d.	4s. 8d.
Women over 18	3s. 10d.	3s. 10d.	5s. 1d.	3s. 8d.
Boys under 18	2s. 10½d.	2s. 5½d.	3s. 7d.	2s. 9d.
Girls under 18	2s. 4d.	1s. 11d.	3s. 1d.	2s. 3d.

Note : Contributions for the National Health Service scheme (which came into operation on 5th July, 1948) as well as to all forms of National Insurance (including Industrial Injuries) are included in these payments. Men over 70 and women over 65 do not pay these contributions (unless they are still employed), and remission of contributions is provided during unemployment and sickness and for young people still in full-time education and for persons with total incomes of less than £2 a week.

Ministry of National Insurance

The scheme under the *National Insurance Act, 1946* (see below) came into full operation on 5th July, 1948. After the passing of the Act (1st August, 1946) the Ministry of National Insurance was engaged in two fields : (a) the enormous task of preparation for the new comprehensive and universal Insurance Scheme, and (b) the day-to-day work of the existing separate Insurance schemes. The number insured under these schemes rose from 21 millions in 1939 to 24 millions in 1947. When the new scheme started on 5th July, 1948, the number was 25½ millions. After the scheme had been in operation for a fortnight the following new claims had been received :

250,000 for sickness benefit ;
61,000 for industrial injury benefit ;
40,400 for maternity benefit ;
14,750 for retirement pension.

In those first two weeks there were 1,250,000 callers at the 992 local offices of the Ministry.

The Ministry has a Headquarters Office in London with a 400-500 staff, a Central Record Office in Newcastle with a staff of 7,000-8,500, and Regional Offices broadly corresponding to the old Civil Defence regions which control a wide network of Local Offices where claims for benefit are made and all benefits are paid, with certain exceptions. The target figure is about 1,000 Local Offices, distributed rather like the Ministry of Labour's Employment Exchanges. By July, 1948, 992 of the 1,000 had been obtained. Recruitment of staff has gone on steadily and men and women experienced in this work, e.g., approved society staffs, have been engaged in large numbers.

(b) National Insurance Act, 1946

The *National Insurance Act, 1946*, is part of the vast comprehensive programme of national insurance which includes the *Family Allowance Act, 1945*, and the *National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act, 1946*. In moving the Second Reading of the Bill in the House of Lords, the Chancellor, Lord Jowitt, said : " . . . Mr. Joseph Chamberlain perhaps started the work with his original Workmen's Compensation Act. There followed Mr. Asquith with the Old Age Pensions Act ; Mr. Lloyd George with his great National Insurance Act of 1911 ; Mr. Neville Chamberlain with his Widows', Orphans and Old Age Contributory Pensions Act of 1925. Then came the Unemployment Insurance Act of 1934 which first set up the Assistance Board. . . . Mr. Arthur Greenwood then Minister without Portfolio in the Coalition Government . . . appointed Sir William Beveridge to start work which led to his great Report published . . . in November, 1942. . . . The Coalition . . . finally produced the White Paper of September, 1944. A month or so later the Ministry of National Insurance was established, and I became the first Minister of National Insurance . . . I concentrated at once on the National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Bill . . . The (new) Minister (Mr. James Griffiths) was able to introduce the National Insurance Bill . . . in January of this year. . . ."

The Act provides for a unified and comprehensive scheme of National Insurance which will eventually cover practically everyone in Great Britain. It provides, broadly speaking, that there shall be three classes of insured persons :

- (a) *Employed Persons*, i.e., those who work under a contract of service ;
- (b) *Self-employed Persons*, i.e., those who are gainfully occupied, but not under contract of service ; and
- (c) *Non-employed Persons*, those who are not gainfully occupied.

All three classes will contribute for the following kinds of benefits :—

Maternity Benefits ;
Widows' Benefits ;
Guardians' Allowance (for orphans) ;
Retirement Pension ;
Death Grant.

In addition employed persons can qualify for sickness and unemployment benefit, and self-employed persons for sickness benefit.

Contribution rates will depend on the class into which the insured person falls. Employers will contribute, so will the Exchequer. The principle " one card, one stamp, all benefits " is put into practice.

MAIN CONTRIBUTION RATES

	Employed Person	Employer of Employed Persons	Self- employed Person	Non- employed Person
Men over 18	4s. 7d.	3s. 10d.	6s. 2d.	4s. 8d.
Women over 18	3s. 7d.	3s. 0d.	5s. 1d.	3s. 8d.
Boys under 18	2s. 8d.	2s. 3d.	3s. 7d.	2s. 9d.
Girls under 18	2s. 2d.	1s. 9d.	3s. 1d.	2s. 3d.

These rates exclude contributions under the industrial injuries insurance but include contributions to the new health service. Men aged 70 and over and women aged 65 and over will pay no contributions. Men aged 65 to 70 and women aged 60 to 65 will pay contributions only if they are working and have not retired from regular employment. Exceptions from liability to contribute are also provided for the unemployed, the sick, for those still in full-time education, and for persons with total incomes under £104 a year.

BENEFITS

Sickness and Unemployment

- Man or single woman over 18 .. 26s. a week.
- Married woman over 18 .. 20s. unemployment, 16s. sickness, 26s. if separated from her husband.
- Boy or girl under 18 15s. a week.

During the same spell of absence from work sickness benefit, broadly, will be without limitation of period if 156 contributions have been paid, and unemployment benefit will last 180 days, with additions assessed on record.

Maternity. Grant of £4 for all women, and maternity allowance of 36s. a week for 13 weeks (starting about six weeks before expected confinement) for women normally following a gainful occupation, and attendance allowance—£1 a week for four weeks—for other women.

Widows. Widow's allowance of 36s. a week for first 13 weeks of widowhood and then, if there is a child, a widowed mother's allowance of 33s. 6d., i.e., 26s. for the mother and 7s. 6d. for the child ; or, if she has reached the age of 50, a widow's pension of 26s. a week. In addition, a widow's pension is paid to a widow who has reached the age of 40 when her widowed mother's allowance ceases, and to a widow who is incapable of self-support.

Guardian's Allowance. This is 12s. a week for a person who has in his family a child whose parents are dead.

Retirement Pensions. The rates are 26s. for a single person and 42s. for a married couple. They replace the existing contributory old age pension, but will be payable only on retirement from regular work. For this purpose all men aged 70 and over and all women aged 65 and over will be treated as having retired. Men who work after the age of 65 and women who work after the age of 60 will have their pensions increased by 2s. a week for every year they work after the pension age.

Death Grant is paid for expenses connected with the death of an insured person or his wife, child or widow. The grant, with certain exceptions, will be :—

Adult	£20
Child aged 6-17	£15
Child aged 3-5	£10
Child under 3	£6

Administration. There will be a network of regional and local offices throughout the country, working, so far as unemployment benefit is concerned, in close co-operation with the employment exchange. For sickness benefit it is proposed that payment should be made by post or in the home of the sick person. When local offices are fully established, they will be centres where all concerned can go freely for advice and help.

Finance. The expenditure on insurance benefits in 1948 is expected to be about £450,000,000.

The Bill received the Royal Assent on 1st August, 1946, and came into full operation on 5th July, 1948. The Act left much to be dealt with by Regulations, and a National Insurance Advisory Committee has been appointed (28th October, 1947) to consider and report on the regulations made under the Act. The more important regulations require an affirmative resolution of both Houses of Parliament.

A 24-page guide, giving a working knowledge of the Scheme, was sent to every household in the country, of which there are 13 millions.

Increases in Pensions

As from October, 1946, the Government raised the current rate of old age pensions. From that date, 855,000 men over 70 and 1,685,000 women over 65 have had their contributory old age pensions increased. In addition, 370,000 men between 65 and 70 and 400,000 women between 60 and 65 have satisfied the retirement condition and receive the increased pensions.

Besides these 3,310,000 contributory pensions, over 400,000 non-contributory pensions at the same rates are paid to men over 70 and women over 65. Supplementary pensions, on proof of need to the Assistance Board, are paid to over half a million (some 525,000) old age pensioners whose needs are not met even by the higher rate of pension.

Northern Ireland. In pursuance of a policy of parity in social services the Northern Ireland Parliament has passed an Act corresponding to the comprehensive legislation noted above.

(c) Family Allowances Act, 1945

A Bill to provide Family Allowances was presented to Parliament on 15th February, 1945, and received the Royal Assent on 15th June, 1945. Its object was to provide for the payment by the Minister of National Insurance from the Exchequer of an allowance for each family at the rate of 5s. for each eligible child except the first or only child, and so to benefit the family as a whole. (A child, for this purpose, is defined as one who is under the upper limit of the compulsory school age or one over that age who is undergoing full-time instruction in school, or is an apprentice, until the 31st July after his 16th birthday.)

Example: "... Thus, if there are four children in a family aged 17, 13, 11 and 9, no account will be taken of the child aged 17, and there remain, therefore, three qualified children, for whom two allowances will be payable. When the child aged 13 leaves school, or after the 31st July following his 16th birthday (if he is then at school) the number of qualified children will be reduced to two, and only one allowance will be payable."

If the breadwinner is on benefit, i.e., out of work or sick, then under the new National Insurance scheme provision will be made for the first child. Further assistance will come in the development of school meals and milk services. Over 2,500,000 families with approximately 7,000,000 children are eligible for the allowances and these are therefore payable for 4,500,000 children. The cost of the cash allowances is roughly £57 millions a year and that of administration about £2 million. In the case of a married couple living together the allowance belongs to the mother, but either the father or the mother may draw it at the post office. Reciprocal arrangements have been made with Northern Ireland and the Isle of Man.

Payment. Payment of family allowances began on 6th August, 1946. Allowances are claimed by completing and sending in to the Ministry of National Insurance a special claim form obtainable at any post office. When awarded, allowances are paid at post offices by means of books containing weekly orders; each order remains valid for a period of six months. All families living in Great Britain, whatever the nationality of the parents, may qualify for allowances, but British subjects who were born abroad and aliens are required to satisfy certain residence conditions. In all cases either the husband or the wife must be living in Great Britain. Members of the Forces and Merchant Seamen will, during their service, always be treated as though they were living in Great Britain. By 28th May, 1948, Family Allowance awards in Great Britain reached a total of 3,000,000. They were being paid to families comprising more than 7,000,000 children whose family income is increased from this source by nearly £60,000,000 a year.

Northern Ireland. Under a similar Act of Northern Ireland payment of family allowances began in Ulster simultaneously with those in Great Britain. One hundred thousand families are eligible for benefit and the number of children concerned is 210,000. The annual cost is about £3 million.

(d) National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act, 1946

This Bill "to substitute for the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1925 to 1945, a system of insurance against personal injury caused by accidents arising out of and in the course of a person's employment, and for purposes connected therewith" was introduced on 23rd August, 1945, and read the second time on 10th October, 1945. It received the Royal Assent on 26th July, 1946. The measure is broadly based on the White Paper, Social Insurance Part II of 27th September, 1944 (Cmd. 6551), and its main object is to make compensation for industrial injuries a part of the country's social services in a scheme based on insurance against risk and not on liability for compensation. Its chief provisions are that (1) all persons employed in

Great Britain under any contract of service or apprenticeship shall be insured without income limit ; (2) benefits shall be related to the degree of disablement caused by the industrial accident or disease and not to loss of earning power. The degree of disablement will be assessed by Medical Boards and expressed as a percentage, the maximum being 100 per cent.

Benefits

Injury Allowance. The basic weekly rate both for injury benefit and for 100 per cent disablement pension is 45s. Injury benefit is payable during incapacity for work for a period of not more than 26 weeks from the date of the accident.

Pension is payable from the end of the 26th week if incapacity continues so long, or from the date of recovery, if there is any remaining disablement. Rates of pension for partial disablement will be proportionate to the 100 per cent, e.g., 9s. for 20 per cent, 22s. 6d. for 50 per cent, etc.

Unemployability. When a pensioner remains virtually unemployable, as a result of accident, he will receive a 20s. a week supplement to his pension.

Special Handicap Allowance. Where, as a result of his accident, a pensioner is unable, and likely to remain unable, to follow his regular occupation, and is also unable to take up suitable alternative work of an equivalent standard, he may be granted a special allowance of 11s. 3d. a week, provided this does not raise his pension above 45s.

Constant Attendance Allowance. A pensioner with a 100 per cent assessment who requires constant attendance as a result of his accident, may be granted a special allowance of up to 20s. a week, or, in exceptionally severe cases, 40s. a week.

Treatment in Hospital. If a pensioner has to go into hospital for treatment for his injury, his pension will, if not already at 100 per cent rate, be increased to that rate while the treatment lasts.

Dependants' Allowances. During the period of injury benefit, or when a pensioner is in receipt of an unemployability supplement or is undergoing approved treatment in hospital, the allowance for a wife or other adult dependant is 16s. weekly, and the allowance for a first child, i.e., a child who would not benefit under Family Allowances, is 7s. 6d.

Pensioner who is Sick or Unemployed. A pensioner can get sickness or unemployment benefit in addition to his pension, if he satisfies the normal conditions for receipt of such benefit, but benefit will be at half-rate until he has been unemployed for 13 weeks since the date of his accident.

Children. If employed, children under school-leaving age have a right to disablement pension at half adult rate. Regulations will determine whether they are to get any injury benefit. Neither they nor their employers will pay contributions.

Death Benefit. The rate of pension for a widow is 30s. weekly, if she has a child or children, or if she is over 50 years of age, or if she is permanently incapable of self-support ; and in other cases, 20s. weekly. The pension will be raised to 37s. 6d. so long as she has the care of one child of the deceased person. The pension for dependent parents is at the rate of up to 20s. weekly for one parent, or 30s. for two parents living together. In certain circumstances, a dependent relative may receive a pension (maximum 20s.) and a woman having the care of the deceased's child may receive an allowance of 20s. so long as she has the care of the child. A parent or relative not entitled to a pension may qualify for a gratuity not exceeding £52 in some cases, or £104 in others.

Contributions. Weekly contribution rates are :—

	Employer	Worker	Total
Men	4d.	4d.	8d.
Women	3d.	3d.	6d.
Boys under 18	2½d.	2½d.	5d.
Girls under 18	2d.	2d.	4d.

Local Tribunals. Independent local appeal tribunals, consisting of one representative each of employers and workers under an independent chairman, hear appeals from the insurance officers' decisions. There is a further right of appeal to a commissioner appointed by the Crown, whose decision is final.

Accident Research. There is a provision for financial assistance to be given to persons engaged on research into the causes and prevention of industrial accident and disease, and for the Minister of National Insurance to employ persons to carry out research.

Artificial Limbs. Provision is made to supply artificial limbs and other appliances to pensioners either free or at a reduced cost.

Administration. The Minister has a small headquarters staff in London, an executive headquarters staff in Newcastle-on-Tyne, and local offices in all important centres throughout the country. There is an Industrial Injuries Advisory Council to which members are nominated by representative employers' and workmen's organisations.

Finance. The cost of the benefits is estimated at £28½ millions with a further £3½ millions for administration. The Act came into full operation on 5th July, 1948.

Northern Ireland. Provision is made, as with the National Insurance Act, for complete reciprocity with Northern Ireland, when the scheme contained in a similar measure, introduced by the Northern Ireland Government, comes into operation.

Law Reform (Personal Injuries) Act

An Act with the above title, designed to abolish the defence of "common employment" in actions for damages in respect of personal injuries, received Royal Assent on 30th June, 1948.

(e) National Assistance Act, 1948

This Act, which received Royal Assent 13th May, 1948, provides for the supersession of the existing poor law, and sets up a *National Assistance Board* to administer a single comprehensive service replacing outdoor relief, unemployment assistance, supplementary pensions, blind domiciliary assistance and tuberculosis treatment allowances.

It plans to improve provision for the aged by the establishment by welfare authorities of small homes for the accommodation of any old persons unable wholly to look after themselves elsewhere, whatever their means. These small homes will replace the existing institutions for the aged poor which are at present only exceptionally supplemented by small homes. An increasing number of old people's homes or hostels are now being created by voluntary effort. The Act makes pro-

vision for voluntary organisations to act, by arrangement, as agents of the welfare authorities in providing residential accommodation and welfare services of a kind for which the latter have a responsibility.

(f) The Children Act, 1948

The Children Act, which received Royal Assent 30th June, 1948, also formed part of the programme of social legislation which came into operation when the provisions of the National Assistance Act brought Poor Law to an end on 5th July, 1948. The Act provides that every local authority is to have a children's committee to deal with the care of children removed from their homes by order of the court. The committees are also to deal with child life protection, the registration of adoption societies, and the supervision of children placed by their parents in the care of others. The committees are to appoint children's officers to look after the children. Children are to be boarded out, as far as possible, in suitable private homes.

4. HEALTH

(a) Vital Statistics

(For Births, Deaths and Marriages, see Appendix I.)

ENGLAND AND WALES

Year	Maternal mortality (rate per 1,000 total births)	Stillbirths (rate per 1,000 total births)	Neo-Natal ⁽¹⁾ deaths (rate per 1,000 related live births)	Infant Mortality ⁽²⁾ (rate per 1,000 related live births)
1939	3.13	37.8	28.3	50.6
1940	2.68	36.1	29.6	56.8
1941	2.80	34.4	29.0	60.0
1942	2.48	33.0	27.2	50.6
1943	2.29	30.2	25.2	49.1
1944	1.93	27.7	24.3	45.4
1945	1.80	27.6	24.8	46.0
1946	1.43 *	27.2 *	24.5	42.9 *
1947	1.17 *	24.1 *	22.7	41.4 *

(1) Neo-natal death means death within one month of birth.

(2) Infant Mortality means deaths among infants under one year.

*Provisional.

(b) The National Health Service

The advances made in Britain's public health and medical services during the past thirty years culminated in the passing of the *National Health Service Act* in November, 1946, operative from 5th July, 1948.

The object of the Act is "to promote the establishment in England and Wales of a comprehensive service designed to secure improvement in the physical and mental health of the people of England and Wales and the prevention, diagnosis and treatment of illness; and for that purpose to provide or secure (free of charge except where any provision of the Act expressly provides for the making and recovery of charges) the effective provision of services in accordance with the provisions of the Act."

This object will be achieved by a number of far-reaching additions and alterations to the existing administrative machinery, preventive and curative services, and financial organisation.

(i) *Administrative Machinery*

The Minister of Health assumes *direct* responsibility for (a) the provision on a national basis of all hospital and specialist services, (b) the mental health functions from the hands of the Board of Control (except for the quasi-judicial functions designed to safeguard the liberty of the patient), (c) the conduct of research work into any matters relating to the prevention, diagnosis or treatment of illness or mental defect, (d) a Public Health Laboratory Service, and (e) a blood transfusion service. He assumes *indirect* responsibility for the organisation and maintenance of Health Centres, the establishment and maintenance of general medical services and for the management of all other services. He will be advised by the *Central Health Services Council* and *Standing Advisory Committees* which may be appointed to study various aspects of the Service.

Under the Minister, *Regional Hospital Boards*, set up on 27th June, 1947; in fourteen areas, determined as far as possible so as to secure that the hospital and specialist services could be conveniently associated with a university having a school of medicine, are to be generally in charge of that part of the new service reorganised on a national and regional basis. For more detailed work Hospital Management Committees have been set up to be the local managing bodies for individual hospitals, or groups of hospitals, acting as the agents of the Regional Boards.

Each Board has a membership of between 22 and 32 persons, including members appointed after consultation with hospital governing bodies, local authorities, doctors, dentists, nurses, industrialists, trade unionists and others. The Chairmen have been appointed for a term ending in March, 1950, and one-third of the other members will retire at the end of each year beginning March, 1949. They will be eligible for reappointment, and the term of office for future members will be three years. All appointments are honorary.

The administration of the personal medical services will be in the hands of Executive Councils assisted by Area Committees, e.g., the Medical Practices Committee, the Dental Estimates Board, and the Ophthalmic Services Committee. These Executive Councils have been set up in the area of every major local authority.

The organisation and management of Health Centres (when these have been established) will be carried out by the Councils of Counties and County Boroughs, or (in very exceptional cases) by Joint Committees. These Councils are henceforth to be known as the Local Health Authorities, and in addition to the Health Centres, they take charge of all the public health and medical services previously administered by local authorities (see following section).

(ii) *Preventive and Curative Services*

Hospital and Specialist Services cover consultant and hospital services of all kinds, including general and special hospitals, maternity accommodation, tuberculosis sanatoria, infectious disease units, accommodation for convalescence and medical rehabilitation, and all forms of specialised treatment. The rights and liabilities attached to these services, including their premises, property and assets, are transferred to the Minister of Health.

The organisation and management of these services is, as has been stated, the responsibility of the Regional Boards, except in the case of "teaching hospitals" i.e., those designated by the Minister of Health as providing, or able to provide in the future, facilities for undergraduate or post-graduate clinical teaching. Such hospitals are to be the centre of clinical teaching and technical experiment and

innovation, and for this reason they are to be administered by their own Boards of Governors, who are directly responsible to the Minister and act as his agent in the management of their own hospitals.

Medical and Dental Schools continue to be under the control, in London, of their own Governing Body and elsewhere of the Governing Bodies of the universities of which they form part.

All hospital and consultant services are available free of charge to every man, woman and child in Britain. Certain hospitals may put aside a number of "paying beds" or "paying blocks" for the use of people wishing for privacy, provided that the accommodation so set aside is not needed for non-paying patients on medical grounds.

The new Health Centres, which are to be established by the Local Health Authorities as soon as conditions permit, will provide facilities for (a) general medical and dental services, (b) the special clinical services of the Local Health Authorities, e.g., infant welfare clinics, etc., and (c) out-patient clinics for the specialist services on premises technically equipped and staffed at public cost.

The General Practitioner Services cover the medical attention given to individuals by doctors and dentists of their own choice from among those enrolled in the new service. Doctors previously in practice were entitled to join the new service on the appointed day in the place where they were practising. Those wishing to start practice after the appointed day will have to apply to a special Medical Practices Committee, so that a proper distribution of doctors throughout the country may be assured. Doctors may work either at the new Health Centres (when they have been established) or at their own surgeries, whichever is the more convenient for them. Dentists will also work at the Health Centres on a whole-time or a part-time basis, or in their own surgeries, when they will be able to claim their fees from public funds. Drugs, medicines, appliances, etc. are, as a normal rule, issued to patients free of charge.

The Local Government Services, which have already been in existence for many years, are now unified under the control of the Councils of Counties and County Boroughs and where circumstances permit will be very considerably enlarged and modernised. Plans have already been laid for extending the arrangements for maternity and child welfare; and in addition to the existing ante-natal, child welfare and health visiting schemes, the services of a family doctor are to be made available to every expectant and nursing mother. This doctor may himself give his patient all the necessary care before, during and after her confinement, or he may assist her in choosing a "General Practitioner Obstetrician" from the list of those practising in her area to deputise for him in the case. Women who require institutional accommodation and the services of specialists or consultants will be provided with them.

Other local authority services are likewise to be improved and every Health Authority has been required to report to the Minister of Health on the steps proposed to carry out the work.

(iii) Financial Organisation

The new services are to be financed partly from the Exchequer, partly from local rates, and partly from a proportion of National Insurance contributions. (See "National Insurance.") No charge is to be made to the public except for appliances, goods or other articles outside the usual scope of the Service.

(c) Particular Services

The public health services which existed up to the time when the new national health service was established incorporated the sanitary provisions necessary for a civilised social life, and included a number of general and specialised services which

have passed into the new service and will there be extended and developed. Among these services are :—

(i) Maternity and Child Welfare

As part of this service, local authorities and voluntary organisations provide *Welfare Centres* where mothers can obtain ante- and post-natal care at the hands of specially trained doctors, midwives and nurses, as well as good medical advice for themselves and their children. Children attending the centres are regularly weighed and examined by a doctor so that a record of their progress may be kept and any deviation from the normal detected at the earliest possible moment.

Facilities for dental, orthopaedic, ophthalmic and sunlight treatment are often available at the centres for children whose condition warrants it; and a certain number provide similar facilities for mothers.

Some Welfare Centres are also distribution points for the fruit juices, cod liver oil, vitamin tablets and National Dried Milk provided for expectant mothers and infants under government arrangements; and many stock proprietary brands of infant foods and other commodities for issue at reduced prices or free according to circumstances if the doctor in charge prescribes them in particular cases.

Attendance at the centres is not compulsory, but no effort is spared to make them attractive and convenient, and approximately three out of four mothers with children under one year visit them.

Maternity care, apart from private arrangements, is provided by local authorities either in maternity homes or in the lying-in wards of hospitals, or in the home of the patient. In this last case, the midwife will visit the patient regularly before the confinement and give her what help and advice are necessary in carrying out the doctor's directions. She will deliver her (calling in the doctor if complications make this necessary), and will continue in attendance for the first fourteen days after the birth. In all other cases, ante-natal care will be given at the Welfare Centres (as already stated) or at the hospital concerned. At the present time patients who can afford to do so book their own doctor and maternity nurse for domiciliary or nursing home confinement.

The demand for institutional accommodation for maternity cases increased during 1945-6 and 1947; 300 extra maternity beds had been brought into commission by the adaptation of houses and general wards in hospitals, in the year 1945-6, in England and Wales, and licences for the provision of a further 862 beds were issued in the following year.

Health visiting is carried on by a staff of specially trained nurses employed mainly by local authorities. This staff is able to give expert advice to mothers in their own homes on such matters as breast feeding, the general care of the baby, and the nurture and management of children up to five years old. Recent figures show a steady increase in the number of mothers ready to avail themselves of this service; and during 1946 over 94 per cent of babies born were visited at least once.

Additional provision for the health and welfare of mothers and young children has been made by the establishment of

Hospitals for sick and ailing children;

Homes or Residential Nurseries for healthy babies;

Day Nurseries where children under five years old may be left while their parents are at work, or because other home circumstances render such outside care necessary;

Child Guidance Clinics (see p. 121);

Home Helps Schemes;

Ministry of Food Schemes for the provision of priority milk and eggs to expectant mothers and children under five years old (see p. 69).

All the above services are available to the unmarried mother and her child, and she is given every encouragement to make the fullest use of them.

(ii) *Socially Significant Diseases*

The measures adopted for the prevention and control of infectious disease are based on four main principles : notification, isolation, supervision of contacts, and immunisation. Advances made in the practice of immunisation against diphtheria may be illustrated by the fact that between January, 1941 (when stocks of an effective immunising agent were issued to local authorities free of charge), and June, 1947, nearly 7,000,000 children (that is, not less than 60 per cent of the total population under fifteen years old) had been immunised against diphtheria. Both the incidence of the disease and the number of deaths attributed to it had decreased most strikingly from 50,797 cases with 2,641 deaths in 1941 to 11,986 cases with 472 deaths in 1946. In 1947 deaths numbered only 244. Considerable progress has also been made in the field of investigation generally, and the *Emergency Public Health Laboratory Service* began during 1945 to transform itself into a peace-time service. A central laboratory has now been set up, and the administration of the Service handed back to the Medical Research Council. A large number of outbreaks of infectious disease are investigated by the Service each year.

Detailed arrangements exist to deal with certain conditions and diseases which require specialised treatment both to alleviate the sufferings of the patients, and to protect the community as a whole. Such arrangements cover

Mental Disorder and Mental Deficiency ;
Tuberculosis ;
Venereal Diseases ;

and consist in the main of the provision of hospitals, treatment centres, sanatoria and clinics, where the patients can receive specialised medical treatment and suitable after-care. Considerable attention is also paid to preventive measures in the cases of venereal diseases and tuberculosis.

One of the most important recent developments in this field has been the introduction in 1943 of mass radiography as a means of early diagnosis of tuberculosis, and the number of persons so examined in England and Wales up to 31st December, 1946, was 1,369,011. As a corollary to the introduction of mass radiography a scheme for the financial assistance of persons undergoing treatment was started at the same time so that such persons and their dependants should be free from financial anxiety during the treatment period.

(iii) *Hospitals*

For historical reasons, two quite distinct and until recently unco-ordinated hospital systems have grown up side by side. The *voluntary hospitals*, which included many of the oldest and most famous, started as charitable foundations for the poor and were financed by voluntary subscriptions and donations and by endowments ; of recent years patients of all classes have been admitted and contributed to the cost of their treatment according to their means ; there were also other sources of income, including patients' contributory schemes. These hospitals were administered by voluntary committees and much of the medical work was done by well-known specialists without payment. Some voluntary hospitals also had private wards for wealthier patients.

The *municipal hospitals*, on the other hand, grew out of the old Public Assistance Hospitals, which were transferred to County and County Borough Councils in 1929. They contained some two-thirds of the total available beds and were paid for out of State grants and local rates, though the local authority was bound by law to recover part of the cost from the patients themselves except in certain circum-

stances. Most of their medical staff were salaried, though increasing use has been made of outside consultants and specialists.

The first attempt at integration of these hospitals was made in 1939 by the establishment of the *Emergency Hospital Scheme*. The hospital authorities remained responsible for the actual treatment of the sick and injured, whether war casualties or not, while the Ministry of Health took responsibility for organising existing facilities on a nation-wide scale, for finding additional accommodation and equipment where necessary, and for the cost of treatment of air-raided casualties, service sick and wounded, and other special classes.

Under the *National Health Service Act*, practically all the hospitals, voluntary, municipal, and emergency, are taken over by the Minister of Health and run as a single integrated service. The medical staff of the hospital service are either full-time, in receipt of a salary, or part-time, usually paid on a sessional basis, in which case they remain free to accept private patients.

(iv) *Other Services*

1. *Rehabilitation*

Considerable changes and developments have taken place in methods of treatment during the past seven years. Passive physiotherapy, including heat, massage and electrotherapy, has largely given place to other and more positive aids based upon active movements by the patients themselves, e.g., gymnastic exercises, remedial games, and occupational therapy. Mental stimulus is provided by lectures, discussions, musical entertainments and books.

The success of these methods in reconditioning sick and injured service patients and essential war workers during the war years has shown the need for similar facilities as an integral part of the nation's health services.

A certain number of doctors and ancillary hospital staff such as occupational therapists and remedial gymnasts have already been trained under special Ministry of Health schemes and are helping to supply the demands for rehabilitation staff. The Ministry has also provided some hospitals with prefabricated huts suitable as gymnasia or handicraft centres, and has issued on loan equipment for occupational therapy, gymnastics and games. Furthermore, it has recommended that adequate facilities for full in-patient rehabilitation should be established at every hospital to which patients with serious injury or illness are admitted; that there should be well-staffed out-patient rehabilitation centres in every town or district, based upon one or more of the local hospitals; that every large hospital area should possess a residential rehabilitation centre for the full reconditioning of long-stay cases; and that special centres should be set up in various parts of the country for the investigation and rehabilitation of particular types of disability.

2. *Blood Transfusion*

This service, started as a war-time measure, has now become the National Blood Transfusion Service organised by the Ministry of Health in fourteen regions centred on university towns. Stored blood, dried plasma and transfusion apparatus are supplied to all hospitals who need it. In addition, special investigations, particularly those involving the Rh. factor, are undertaken. The service is at present developing its policy of Rh. testing all its ante-natal patients so that the correct treatment can be given to infants with hæmolytic disease of the new-born.

3. *Medico-Social Work*

An increasing number of hospitals have almoners' departments staffed by medico-social workers, called almoners, specially trained to apply the principles of social case work to the problems of the hospital patient. Social work in connection

with psychiatric clinics and mental hospitals is carried out by another specialised type of social worker, the psychiatric social worker.

4. Home Nursing

Nursing in the home has been carried out by Queen's Nurses and local District Nursing Associations organised on a voluntary basis. The cost was met from charitable subscriptions, contributory schemes, payments from public funds, and to a small extent from patients' payments. Contributors and the necessitous were usually treated free and a small charge made to other patients. The provision of free home nursing has become a responsibility of local authorities in the new Health Service, but they may use the voluntary associations as their agents.

5. Other Voluntary Aid for the Sick and Handicapped

A number of voluntary organisations provide extensive welfare services of various kinds for a variety of sick and handicapped persons in co-operation with, or supplementary to, the provision made by central and local authorities. Many convalescent homes and permanent homes for the infirm and other specially handicapped persons are maintained by voluntary effort. Invalid children and others needing care in their own homes are visited and supervised by voluntary organisations. Special organisations also serve the welfare of the blind, the deaf and other special classes. These voluntary agencies usually depend largely on the work, part-time or full-time, of unpaid volunteers.

6. The Care of the Poor and Aged

Before the National Health Service, free general practitioner services were provided for all Old Age Pensioners not already entitled to the services of a panel doctor under the National Health Insurance Scheme, and for all persons in receipt of public assistance and their dependants.

7. The School Health Service

For details of this service, see under "Education : Health and Welfare of School-children."

8. The Industrial Health Services

For details of these services see under "Industrial Relations and Welfare."

5. EDUCATION

(a) The National System

(i) Structure

The system of education in England and Wales combines variety and freedom, and its most characteristic features in organisation are decentralisation of administration, the prominent part played by voluntary agencies, and the freedom of teachers from official direction on curricula and methods of teaching.

Teachers are servants of the local authorities or of the governing bodies of their schools. The relation of the central authority (the Board, or since 3rd August, 1944, the Ministry of Education) to local authorities (L.E.A.s) is based on consultation and co-operation by direct contact with the Minister and his Department and through His Majesty's Inspectors, who act as liaison officers.

Publicly maintained schools and institutions provide education falling into three main categories : primary, secondary, and further. Primary schools cover the period up to 11, including the nursery stage (2 to 5). Secondary schools of a variety of types, Grammar, Technical, and Modern, cover the ages 11 to 18, and secondary education is now available for all children of 11 and over. Further education includes a variety of provisions : technical colleges, evening institutes, adult education classes and so on. (See Ministry of Education Pamphlet, No. 2, A Guide to

the Educational System of England and Wales, H.M.S.O., 1s., and, especially, Ministry of Education Pamphlet, No. 8, Further Education : The Scope and Content of its Opportunities under the Education Act, 1944, H.M.S.O., 3s. This pamphlet outlines a vast plan for the future of Further Education, envisaging three types of college : local, regional, or central, and national.)

The *Education Act*, 1944, greatly simplified the general structure and provided for a general levelling-up of standards, without sacrificing variety or freedom. It became law on 3rd August, 1944, and came into operation for most purposes on 1st April, 1945. Its main changes included :

The giving of effective power to the Minister of Education to secure the development of a national educational policy.

The appointment of two Central Advisory Councils, one for England and one for Wales, to advise the Minister on educational theory and practice. (The Central Advisory Council for England published its first report 30th May, 1947, under the title of *School and Life*, H.M.S.O., 2s. 6d., which stressed the advantage to the community of carrying the general education of all as far as possible.)

Classification of education into three successive stages ; primary, secondary, and further, to supersede previous distinction between elementary and higher education.

Reorganisation of the existing publicly maintained elementary schools to be completed so that well-designed primary schools are available for all children up to 11, and secondary schools for all children over that age.

(From April, 1945, no tuition fees have been charged in primary and secondary schools of any type maintained by local authorities.)

Compulsory part-time education in due course for young persons up to 18 in County Colleges. If they do not attend school full-time they must attend one whole day or two half-days each week for 44 days each year, or a period of 8 weeks (or two periods of 4 weeks) if more suitable. (Proposals for County Colleges are fully outlined in the Ministry of Education Pamphlet, No. 3, *Youth's Opportunity*, H.M.S.O., 1s. ; see also Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 8, *Further Education*, referred to above.)

Extension of existing facilities for securing the health of children and young people. Better and more varied education provided for handicapped children. (New Regulations dealing with special educational treatment for handicapped children, including arrangements for boarding out with foster-parents, and the school medical and dental services were issued on 19th April, 1945. A residential county college is being set up for deaf young persons between 16 and 18, and a special school has been opened for children with speech defects. See generally Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 5, *Special Educational Treatment*, H.M.S.O., 9d.)

Registration and inspection of independent schools to become compulsory as soon as the necessary inspecting staff is available. The school-leaving age was raised to 15 without exemptions on 1st April, 1947, with provision for later raising it to 16.

On 1st April, 1945, it became the duty of all L.E.A.s to prepare Development Plans covering the adequate provision of primary and secondary schools for all children in their areas. In March, 1947, L.E.A.s were instructed to prepare their schemes for Further Education, including their plans for County Colleges.

The provision of school buildings has been vigorously prosecuted, but owing to the fuel crisis in 1947 and the shortage of labour and equipment, this remains one of the hardest of post-war tasks. An elaborate programme of constructing pre-fabricated school buildings has been put into operation. By 7th April, 1948, only 2,000 out of the 6,000 school huts projected had been completed, but it is hoped to complete the programme by the end of the year. The school building programme for 1947 and 1948 was estimated to cost £50,000,000 for permanent building apart from the cost of standard huts.

In July, 1948, there were 349 new schools or major enlargements to schools under construction. This figure omits all jobs costing less than £2,000 and amounts to a total value of over £20 millions.

On 1st October, 1948, the Minister of Education, Mr. Tomlinson, said that solid progress was being made, but that we still had a very long way to go to overtake the arrears and to achieve the higher standards which we all wanted to see applied throughout the educational system.

The adequate provision of text-books also remains a grave problem, because, although the supply of paper for this purpose was increased from 4th July, 1948, to 85 per cent of its pre-war consumption, the shortage of labour and lack of printing and binding facilities are still severe.

(ii) *Finance*

A very large proportion of the expenditure on education is met out of public funds, that is, money provided by Parliament out of taxes or by L.E.A.s out of rates. The amount of grant paid to L.E.A.s by the Ministry out of the money provided by Parliament is related to the amount of approved expenditure incurred by the L.E.A.s and is in total equal to more than half this. As from 1st April, 1945, the standard percentage of Exchequer grant payable to each authority was increased by five. The first annual grant (1833) was £20,000. The annual expenditure of public money on education in 1945 was over £120 millions, of which the net expenditure of the Ministry amounted to about £65 millions, and the net expenditure of the L.E.A.s out of rates was about £54 millions. In presenting the estimates for 1946-7, the Minister of Education said: "For the first time over £100 millions is asked for on the Ministry of Education vote. . . ." When the Minister presented the Estimates for 1947-8 he said that the total of £213,000,000 was made up of £138,000,000 from the Exchequer and £75,000,000 from L.E.A.s. In the 1948-9 estimates the Exchequer contribution is reckoned at £160,000,000, an increase of £24,000,000.

(iii) *Grants and Scholarships*

No fees may now be charged for tuition in any type of primary or secondary school maintained by L.E.A.s. Free tuition includes free provision of books and any necessary equipment. The Minister of Education accepts the principle that opportunities of education in direct grant grammar schools, i.e., grammar schools receiving grants direct from the Ministry, should be available to boys and girls capable of profiting by them irrespective of their parents' income. To achieve this, the conditions under which grant was paid were altered as from the beginning of the educational year 1945-6. The main new conditions are that not less than 25 per cent of the previous year's admissions must be offered free each year to pupils who had at any time been under instruction for two years at a grant-aided primary school. A further 25 per cent must be offered to the Local Education Authorities, who will be responsible for the fees and those of the remaining 50 per cent. The parents will pay nothing if their income (with one child only) does not exceed £7 10s. a week. Above that income the fees will graduate according to means. In these cases the Ministry of Education pay the fees or make up the balance.

On 20th May, 1946, the Ministry of Education announced details of a policy designed to ensure that every really promising boy and girl capable of benefiting by a university education receives an adequate allowance to cover tuition and maintenance. The number of State Scholarships tenable for university honours degree courses was raised on 27th March, 1947, from 360 annually to 750, with a further 100 offered to part-time students now in Industry or Commerce, and another 20 for students of mature age. On 5th April, 1948, it was announced that the figure of 750 would be increased to 800 in 1948.

The Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Education said (26th June, 1947)

that in December, 1946, there were 20,273 students at British universities receiving financial aid from the State, and 7,000 from local authorities. The former figure could be broken down into : 917 state scholars, 59 royal scholars and students in science, 4,988 students under regulations for training of teachers, 570 open scholars receiving supplementary university awards, 1,205 state bursars in science, and 12,534 students assisted under the Further Education and Training Scheme. By March, 1948, a cumulative total of over 54,000 awards had been made by the Ministry of Education under the Further Education and Training Scheme. Of these 40,000 were still current.

Under new Draft Regulations, any student who wins an open or State Scholarship, or its equivalent, has, from the autumn of 1946, received from the Ministry such supplementary financial help towards the cost of his tuition and maintenance as may be necessary to enable him to take full advantage of his university course. This will apply to all winners of open scholarships and exhibitions, State Scholarships, and to winners of closed scholarships or exhibitions where the Minister is satisfied that the conditions of the awards are of a sufficiently high standard. The limit of £100 to the Ministry's contribution to a State Scholarship has been removed.

Thus the Ministry can make up a student's award to cover the full cost of tuition and maintenance where the parents' net income is less than £600 a year. On incomes above this level there will be a graduated scale of contributions. If the parents' income exceeds £1,500 no supplementary payment will be made.

The award of Travelling and Industrial Scholarships, discontinued during the war, has been restored. They are open to persons employed in industry and are tenable at the Royal College of Arts for one year. Conditions will be as described above.

The Ministry also award about 30 Royal Scholarships and Studentships in Science, and about 60 Scholarships and Exhibitions in Art each year. Some 1,500 scholarships with maintenance grants are also awarded by L.E.A.s.

Numerous exhibitions and scholarships are awarded from their own funds by all the universities—notably by the colleges at Oxford and Cambridge—and also by private benefactions. Approximately 40 to 50 per cent of Great Britain's university students are receiving financial assistance from other than private sources. (See above.)

During the war over 6,000 State Bursaries in physics with radio, engineering (mechanical and electrical), chemistry, metallurgy, and also in glass technology, were awarded by the Ministry to selected boys and girls. Some 3,000 Engineering Cadetships were given to boys of 17 and 18 for training for commissioned rank in technical units of the Services.

(b) Health and Welfare of School Children

(i) School Health Service

For some 40 years the principle has been accepted that the State has a special responsibility as regards the health of school children. The 1944 Act provides for the widest possible advance in this field, and the School Health Service is closely co-ordinated with the proposed National Health Service, which came into operation 5th July, 1948. Under the 1944 Act, the work of regular medical inspection and provision of treatment, undertaken by L.E.A.s through their medical and nursing staff, is extended to cover all children in primary and secondary schools maintained by L.E.A.s and also, when they are established, attending County Colleges. Treatment will be both compulsory and free.

The 1944 Act accordingly requires the Local Education Authority to ascertain all children who need special educational treatment, including what are known as "maladjusted" children, and to provide special educational treatment in ordinary schools for those less severely and in special schools for those more severely handicapped. More special schools are to be provided and parents may ask for the

examination of any child over two years with a view to its being given such special education as it may need. The compulsory age of attendance for all handicapped children needing education in special schools is standardised at 5 to 16. (See Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 5.)

In June, 1947, plans were announced for the setting up of a residential college near Sheffield to meet the needs of some 400 deaf young persons (aged 14-16) every year. They will attend two-month courses, 80 at a time. On 28th June, 1947, the first school specially catering for children with speech defects was opened at Moor House, Hurst Green, Surrey. Great efforts have been made to relieve the plight of children suffering from spastic paralysis through the formation of a British Council for the Welfare of Spastics, which undertakes research, investigation, and the spread of information.

(ii) Meals and Milk

Since 1906 L.E.A.s have been able to provide milk and meals for pupils of elementary schools who are unable, owing to lack of food, to take full advantage of the education provided. Since 1939 the School Meals Service has been greatly expanded, and it is now the Government's policy that, as soon as is practicable, school dinners and milk should be provided free at all schools maintained by L.E.A.s for all children. (Until school canteens are available for the majority of children, a charge, usually of about 5d. a meal, subject to total or part remission, is made.) In 1938 the average daily number of dinners supplied was 21,000.

Under the 1944 Act, the provision of milk, like that of meals, is converted from a power into a duty of L.E.A.s. School milk became free of charge in all grant-aided primary and secondary schools, as from August, 1946. In June, 1946, the number of children taking milk in schools had been 3,370,000; in June, 1947, when it was free, the number was nearly 4,300,000. 94 per cent of all given in schools is either heat-treated or tuberculin-tested.

The following figures, given by the Minister on 13th November, 1947, show the expansion of meals and milk services during the years 1943-47:

NUMBER OF PUPILS HAVING MEALS AND MILK ON A NORMAL DAY IN
GRANT-AIDED PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

	MEALS				MILK			
	Din- ners (000s)	Break- fasts and Teas (000s)	Total (000s)	Number of pupils having dinner as % of number present	Number at ½d. for 1 pint rate (000s)	Number having milk free (000s)	Total number having milk (000s)	Number of pupils having milk as % of number present
1943 Feb.	1,048	13	1,061	23.5	3,089	282	3,371	76.8
1944 Feb.	1,495	20	1,515	32.8	3,114	314	3,428	76.3
1945 Feb.	1,650	17	1,667	36.3	2,934	331	3,265	73.0
1946 Feb.	1,898	21	1,919	41.6	2,932	337	3,269	71.5
June	2,040	22	2,062	43.4	2,988	382	3,370	71.6
Oct.	2,252	26	2,278	47.0	—	4,438	4,438	92.5
1947 Feb.*	2,173	22	2,195	49.7	—	3,817	3,817	87.0
June	2,322	25	2,347	48.5	—	4,267	4,267	89.0

*The number of children at school was abnormally low owing to bad weather.

(iii) *Nursery Schools*

Under the 1944 Act, greater facilities for the education of children below compulsory school age are called for in the provision of nursery schools or nursery classes attached to primary schools. Through nursery schools, nursery classes attached to primary schools, and other agencies, provision during war-time was made for nearly 250,000 children under five. Courses at special colleges are provided for training of nursery teachers. Plans for adapting to post-war needs the war-time services for the day-time care of children under five are to be worked out locally. From 31st March, 1946, such war-time nurseries as became nursery schools or nursery classes were given the normal grant from the Ministry of Education. In January, 1947, the number of nursery schools maintained by L.E.A.s was 353; the number of registered pupils was 18,173. There were also 17 grant-aided nursery schools under voluntary management, with 875 pupils.

(iv) *Child Guidance Clinics*

The organised development of Child Guidance in Britain dates from 1927. In 1938 there were 43 clinics in England and Wales and 11 in Scotland for the psychiatric treatment of nervous, difficult and retarded children. War-time evacuation provided valuable experience in the treatment of "difficult" children. Twenty-six of the clinics were wholly or partly maintained by local authorities. Two hundred and fifteen hostels for children who were hard to place in private billets were established in England and Wales. The results in these hostels were shown in the report of a survey made by the Ministry of Health in 1943 (*Hostels for Difficult Children*, H.M.S.O., 1944, 6d.).

There were in 1947 66 Child Guidance Clinics provided by L.E.A.s and 49 other authorities had established a child guidance service, using clinics provided by voluntary bodies or other local authorities. In all these cases the services of qualified psychiatrists are employed.

(c) *Training of Teachers*

(i) *Supply.* The supply of teachers is an important factor in the rate of educational progress, and vigorous measures are continually being taken to keep it at a high level. When the full effect of the raising of the school-leaving age is felt, 13,000 teachers will be required on that ground alone, but there were by March, 1948, some 25,000 more teachers in the schools than there were at the end of the war, and they have been mainly absorbed in reducing the size of classes. In spite of these improvements, many more women teachers, especially of infants, are required, and a campaign to recruit 6,000 young women by the end of the year was announced in June, 1948, by the Minister of Education, who said that 47,500 more qualified teachers would be required by 1953. Besides the normal training institutions—training colleges and university training departments—there is a vigorously working scheme of special "emergency" training colleges for men and women from the forces or other forms of national service who wish to become teachers. It is likely to cost nearly £20,000,000.

In the normal training colleges and university departments the figure for students in training in the year 1947-8 was 23,000, compared with 15,000 shortly before the war. The emergency training colleges provide an intensive course of training lasting for one year, followed by two years' probation. Courses are included preparing students for work in nursery schools and in domestic subjects. Teachers trained in this way are regarded as fully qualified teachers. Out of 100,000 applications from the Forces to become teachers, 40,000 were accepted. By February, 1948, there were 52 emergency training centres and three technical ones, and the output in 1947 was 10,500 from 2-year courses and 11,600 from 1-year courses. In 1948 some 7,000

men and 2,500 women are expected to complete emergency courses. The scheme is now closed to men, but still open to women.

The Ministry of Education, the Universities, L.E.A.s and other bodies provide a variety of short courses for practising teachers of all kinds, including teachers in technical and commercial schools.

(ii) *National System of Training*

Area organisations are being set up to secure a closer relationship between the universities, training colleges and L.E.A.s, and these three partners will co-operate to establish an educational centre in each area to serve as a focus of interest and activity, not only for students in training and the staffs responsible for them but also practising teachers in all types of institutions in the area and for the authorities themselves. (The arrangements are being made in accordance with the recommendations of the McNair Committee. See the Report : Supply, Recruitment and Training of Teachers and Youth Leaders, H.M.S.O., 2s.).

(iii) *Interchange Schemes*

The Interchange of Teachers Scheme is getting back into its stride again. Just before the war, the number of official exchanges reached a peak figure. In 1947 sixty-two British teachers exchanged posts with teachers in Canada. In 1946 seventy-four teachers from all types of schools in Great Britain were placed, as far as possible, in comparable schools in the U.S.A., and American teachers from those schools took the places of British teachers in this country. Owing to the great success of this scheme, the number of teachers exchanging posts was increased in 1947 to 126. The figures for the estimated number of exchanges of teachers in 1948 are : U.S.A., 150 ; Canada, 100 ; Australia, 50 ; South Africa, 18 ; New Zealand, 9. In 1947 about 400 French, 30 Swiss and 6 Belgian assistants were serving in British schools ; about 150 assistants from Britain were employed in France and five in Switzerland. These numbers on both sides should be increased in 1948. There will be a small number of exchanges with Norway, Sweden and Denmark. Early in 1948 the Ministry of Education announced the establishment of a Central Bureau for Educational Visits and Exchanges which will co-ordinate the activities of the organisations in this and other countries which are concerned with arranging educational visits.

(d) *Broadcasting to Schools*

In the 25 years of its growth school broadcasting has become one of the cardinal factors in education. Before the war there were 11,000 registered listening schools. At the end of the Summer Term, 1946, the number had risen, despite the difficulties of obtaining new sets, to 14,735. Forty-three broadcasts in the week—about 1,400 in a year—were then being handled by the Schools Department.

Outside specialists with particular gifts or experience, together with skilled script-writers, do some of the work, and there is a widely qualified staff within the Corporation : educationists, drama producers, a repertory company of players, and specialist teachers in history, music, science, and so on. There is a wide range of broadcasts on appropriate subjects to suit all ages. There is constant experiment and new ground is continually being broken. Pupils' pamphlets, discontinued in war time, have reappeared.

In 1947 the Central Council and the Scottish Council, which had guided the B.B.C.'s educational policy since 1929, were superseded by three new bodies. *The School Broadcasting Council for the United Kingdom* covers broadcasting to the U.K. as a whole, while two contributory Councils, one for Scotland and one for Wales, cover the series relating particularly to those countries. Each Council is supported

by Programme Committees to whom are delegated programmes aimed at children of a particular age.

The staff of the School Broadcasting Council has been increased to provide a more effective contact with schools, training colleges, and education authorities, with a view to the best use of radio as a supplement to school-work.

(e) Adult Education

Adult education especially shows the national characteristics of variety and freedom. A large part of it is vocational in character, but there is also a substantial measure of general education.

Much of it is provided by L.E.A.s in the form of technical, commercial and art colleges, and in evening institutes. The London County Council alone caters for 150,000 students taking some 300 subjects in 150 institutes. These institutes divide the students into classes of about 20 students each, and a great effort is made to attract as many students as possible.

Important provision is also made by voluntary bodies, such as the British Institute of Adult Education and the Workers' Educational Association. In 1946-7 the latter catered for 100,373 students in 5,516 classes.

The universities also cater for a large number of students, by means of summer schools, and (through extra-mural organisations) by means of courses complementary to those of the L.E.A.s and voluntary bodies. For all these activities provision is made for direct grant from the Ministry of Education to the appropriate responsible body.

It was announced in July, 1946, that 20 L.E.A.s, in some instances working in co-operation, had taken, or were taking, steps to secure the provision of adult education colleges, either directly or by aiding schemes sponsored by voluntary bodies. Sites and premises for 12 such colleges have been acquired, and by February, 1948, eleven residential colleges and centres of adult education were in operation. The first college for resident adult education was opened 28th June, 1947, at Urchfont Manor, near Devizes, Wiltshire; Wedgwood Memorial College, near Stoke-on-Trent, Staffordshire, was opened 22nd July, 1947.

(f) Universities

The Ministry of Education has no jurisdiction over the universities, and its relations with them are concerned mainly with the training of teachers, the provision of adult education, and the award of State Scholarships and Bursaries.

There are 13 degree-giving self-governing universities in England and Wales. Oxford and Cambridge, each with a number of colleges, are very old foundations and are residential. The remainder (including Birmingham, Bristol, Leeds, Nottingham, Manchester, Liverpool, and Sheffield), three of which—London, Durham and Wales—also comprise groups of largely autonomous colleges, are mainly non-residential. The total number of full-time students before the war (1938-9) was 50,246 (38,557 men, 11,689 women). Comparable figures for the autumn term, 1947, are 76,764 (57,520 men, 19,244 women). Of these Oxford accounts for 7,500 (6,375 men, 1,125 women); Cambridge, 6,943 (6,326 men, 617 women); and London 15,789 (10,918 men, 4,871 women). Scotland accounts for 15,795 (11,576 men, 4,219 women), and Wales 4,654 (3,440 men, 1,214 women).

University degree courses generally extend over three or four years, though in medicine five or six years are required. All the universities provide for post-graduate work and research.

The universities, though self-governing institutions, receive aid from the State, in the form of direct grants from the Treasury made on the advice of the University Grants Committee, composed mainly of representatives of the universities themselves. The then Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Dalton, stated on 10th March,

1947: "Before the war Exchequer grants to the Universities were settled for a period of five years. I propose to resume this practice so that universities may plan development with knowledge of the resources they may expect . . . as their need will be on a rising scale, I propose that Parliament should be asked to provide recurrent grants rising from £9,000,000 for 1947-8 to £9,970,000 for 1948-9, and then by annual increments of £650,000 to £11,920,000 for 1951-2. . . . The recurrent grants for the present academic year will amount to between £6 and £7 millions. These figures exclude the grants of £500,000 now made to reaching hospitals. . . . The University Grants Committee estimate that the universities' programme of development will necessitate during the five-year period non-recurrent grants amounting to £50 millions; £40 millions for new buildings and £10 millions for acquiring sites, existing buildings and new equipment. I accept this estimate and will do my best to meet it." It was stated on 20th February, 1948, that the grant for 1947-8 would be over £11,000,000, including £2,000,000 for non-recurrent grant.

For the year beginning October, 1946, preference in entry of students to the universities was given to men who had served in the Armed Forces and others who had been engaged for an equivalent period in important civilian work.

(g) The Public Schools

Outside the national system is that characteristic English institution the Public School, usually an independent secondary boarding school. Many of the public schools go back to the sixteenth century; Winchester (1382) and Eton (1440) are older still. Their part in education cannot be over-estimated. In the nineteenth century the public school system was widely influenced by outstanding headmasters, such as Arnold of Rugby, whose insistence on the importance of character-building helped to give public school education its unique character.

Private schools are independent schools owned by an individual or group of individuals, and preparatory schools are independent (usually boarding) schools for pupils aged about 8-13 intending to enter public schools.

With a view to developing and extending the association between the public schools and the general educational system of the country, the Fleming Committee broadly recommended (July, 1944) that opportunities in public schools should be made available to all boys and girls capable of profiting by them. In direct grant schools (see para. 1(c) above) not less than 25 per cent of their places must be offered free each year to pupils from grant-aided primary schools. A further 25 per cent must be offered to the Local Education Committee. L.E.A.s are at liberty to make direct approach with a view to placing boarders and many are doing so. In addition, a Committee was set up by the late Minister, Miss Ellen Wilkinson, on which the independent schools are represented, with a view to collating boarding vacancies and offering them to L.E.A.s throughout the country. In 1947, 358 vacancies in boarding schools were offered, but only about 70 allocated.

(h) Scotland

The Scottish educational system is not an offshoot of education in England; it is a vigorous, independent growth, from Acts of the Scots Parliament of 1696 and earlier years. Scotland has for long cherished the ideal of a comprehensive system which would provide the fullest possible measure of education for all those who are capable of profiting by the facilities provided, and the *Education (Scotland) Acts* of 1872, 1908, 1918, and 1945 have made successive advances towards the achievement of this aim. The last-mentioned Act contained fewer innovations than its English counterpart of 1944, because some of the major reforms embodied in the English measure had already been in operation in Scotland for many years.

The Minister responsible for education in Scotland is the Secretary of State for Scotland, who acts through the Scottish Education Department.

There is a standing Advisory Council on Education in Scotland which is usually reconstituted triennially. Since its reconstitution in November, 1942, the Advisory Council, under remits made by the Secretary of State, has inquired into and reported upon various aspects of the educational system, including Compulsory Day Continuation Classes, Training for Citizenship, the post-war Supply, Recruitment and training of Teachers, Adult Education Grants, Education Authority Bursaries, Technical Education, the Training of Teachers, Primary Education and Secondary Education, and Approved Schools.

Since the passing of the *Education (Scotland) Act, 1945*, the Secretary of State has issued a number of important Regulations. Chief among them are those relating to Standard National Scales of Salaries for Teachers; Emergency Arrangements for the Recruitment and Training of the Additional Teachers required in connection with the raising of the School Leaving Age; Social and Physical Training Grants; Grants to Central Institutions, to Education Authorities and to non-Education Authority schools; School Meals Service; Grants in aid of Educational Development and Research; Bursaries to Persons over School Age; and the School Medical Service.

A Bill to consolidate the enactments relating to Education in Scotland, which covers enactments from 1872 to 1945, received the Royal Assent on 6th November, 1946.

There are four Scottish universities: St. Andrews, founded in 1411; Glasgow (1450); Aberdeen (1494); and Edinburgh (1583).

(i) Northern Ireland

When Northern Ireland became a self-governing unit of the United Kingdom in 1921, the newly constituted Ministry of Education assumed control of the educational services, and much was achieved in the way of unification by the Education Act (Northern Ireland), 1923. Between 1925 and 1939, nearly 200 new elementary schools were built, providing places for nearly 50,000 children. Between 1924 and 1944 the number of pupils in intermediate and senior departments rose from 7,000 to almost double.

An outstanding feature of Northern Ireland's educational system is its technical education. Almost every town with a population of 3,000 has its technical school, and the Belfast College of Technology is recognised as one of the leading institutions of its kind and now caters for more than 8,000 students. Since 1923 eleven new technical schools have been built and the number of students in 1943 was 22,435.

The apex of Northern Ireland's educational system is Queen's University, Belfast, whose centenary is to be celebrated in 1949.

Reconstruction and the 1947 Act. In 1944 a White Paper, *Educational Reconstruction in Northern Ireland* (N.I. Cmd. 226), was published, outlining the Government's proposals, a number of which were akin to those incorporated in the English Act of 1944 and were put forward as the result of an independent examination of the problem. A Bill, which was introduced in 1946 and became law in 1947, broadly gave effect to these proposals and, with the exception of a few sections, repealed previous Education Acts. The new statutory system consists of three progressive stages: primary, secondary, and further education—which includes youth welfare and adult education—and when the system is in full operation, all children will receive secondary education after the age of 11. The Council of each county and county borough is now the local authority for the area. The school-leaving age is to be raised from 14 to 15 (with provision for a further rise to 16) and the lower limit reduced from 6 to 5. Facilities for free milk and meals are widely extended and many more scholarships will be awarded. An *Advisory Council for Education* was set up in 1948.

6. YOUTH SERVICE

(a) Service of Youth

In the *Service of Youth*, by the combined efforts of the State and of voluntary organisations, young people find wider opportunities (without compulsion of any kind) both for the better use of leisure and for voluntary national service. The service is not merely concerned with providing recreational facilities, but with training in self-government and citizenship and continued education in the widest sense of the term.

The *Education Act*, 1944, gave final recognition to the view that provision for the leisure-time activities of adolescents and for their social and physical training was a state responsibility as much as was the provision of education in school. This view had received partial recognition in the *Education Acts* of 1918 and 1921, the *Physical Training and Recreation Act* of 1937 and in the Board of Education's circular No. 1486, "*The Service of Youth*," issued in November, 1939.

The act compelled all Local Education Authorities to provide sufficient out-of-school activities for adolescents either under their own auspices or by financing the work of the voluntary youth organisations, the pioneers in this field, whose work previously had been greatly hampered by insufficient funds. In addition to this local financing, the Ministry of Education made direct grants to national voluntary organisations amounting to £149,493 in 1945-6 and also gave £190,077 to local organisations in the same year.

The local administrative machinery works on a threefold basis—first, there are the county and county borough youth committees which are normally part of the further education framework on which the local youth organisations are represented; secondly, the district youth committees through which the staffs of the L.E.A.s largely operate, and finally the youth councils, bodies representing the boy and girl members of youth units.

While the greater part of the work for youth is left to the youth organisations themselves, since they can provide a multiplicity of activities which have been proved both acceptable to and essential for adolescents, L.E.A.s help by grants towards the provision of premises, equipment, leaders and instructors, and most of them have appointed one or more youth organisers.

(b) Voluntary Organisations

The 22 leading voluntary youth organisations are associated together as members of the *Standing Conference of National Voluntary Youth Organisations* which was originally founded in 1936 as the Standing Conference of National Juvenile Organisations. This conference is a consultative body which meets to discuss matters of common interest, and to consider means for strengthening the voluntary principle in youth work. It is also the main co-ordinating body for voluntary youth activity in the country. The Youth Departments of the following: the British Council of Churches, the Church of England, the Jewish, Methodist and Roman Catholic Churches, and Toc H, attend the conference as observers as do representatives of the Pre-Service Organisations. In addition, there are at present 48 local standing conferences in the counties and county boroughs of England. Regional conferences have been formed for North Wales and South Wales, and voluntary youth organisations in Scotland and Northern Ireland have recently set up their own Standing Conferences.

The following 22 organisations are members of the conference: Boys' Brigade, Boy Scouts Association, British Red Cross Society (Youth Department), Catholic Young Men's Society of Great Britain, Church Lads' Brigade, Co-operative Youth Movement, Girl Guides Association, Girls' Friendly Society, Girls' Guildry, Girls' Life Brigade, Methodist Association of Youth Clubs, National Association of Boys'

Clubs, National Association of Girls' Clubs and Mixed Clubs, National Association of Training Corps for Girls, National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs, St. John Ambulance Brigade Cadets, Salvation Army (Youth Department), Welsh League of Youth, Young Christian Workers, Young Men's Christian Association and Young Women's Christian Association of Great Britain, the Grail.

All the National Voluntary Youth Organisations aim at training their members, in successive age-groups, to play an effective part in the religious, cultural, social and political life of an educated democracy.

Among the largest and most well known of youth organisations are the *Boy Scouts* and *Girl Guides*. Founded in 1908, the Boy Scouts have a present-day United Kingdom membership of approximately 66,300 of boys between the ages of 14 and 17, and the Girl Guides membership is 62,800 of girls between the ages of 14 and 20. World membership figures of Boy Scouts alone are in the region of 5,000,000. Both organisations aim at developing good citizenship by forming character; training in habits of observation, obedience and self-reliance, loyalty and thoughtfulness for others; teaching services useful to the public and handicrafts useful to members, and promoting their physical, mental and spiritual development.

The *National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs*, the only youth organisation directly concerned with the land, was founded in 1932. There are over 1,300 clubs in England and Wales with a membership of over 35,000 between the ages of 14 and 21. Their aim is to interest town and country children in rural matters, not only in farming, but in thatching, carpentry, etc. Each club aims to provide the instructional, recreational and social needs of the youth of the community it serves.

The *Young Men's Christian Association*, which was founded in 1844, was the earliest of these organisations. With a membership of over 29,000 it is a layman's movement, interdenominational, auxiliary to the churches and democratic in outlook. Its aim is to help young men and boys in the development of Christian character. The method of training is a fourfold programme of religious, educational, social and physical activities, generally conducted in club buildings with facilities for outdoor recreation.

The *National Association of Boys' Clubs* and the *National Association of Girls' Clubs and Mixed Clubs* are two of the biggest organisations based on a non-sectarian foundation. With memberships of 170,000 and 96,200 respectively, the Clubs exist to provide cheerful, friendly recreation and education for young people. The members themselves run the clubs on democratic lines, although each club has a grown-up leader. Activities include physical training, dramatics, music, crafts, cookery, debates, dancing, etc.

The *National Association of Training Corps for Girls*, founded in 1942, though not an official Pre-Service Organisation does provide a general training for service for girls aged 14-18. Composed of the Girls' Training Corps, the Women's Junior Air Corps and the Girls' Naval Training Corps, the total membership is in the region of 20,000.

The organisation which has shown a most remarkable rate of growth in recent years is the *Youth Hostels Association*. Founded in 1930, membership has risen from 6,439 to over 186,930 in 1947, and the number of hostels the Association has in the United Kingdom is now 360. For the cost of 1s. 6d. a night and a small annual subscription, the Association provides simple accommodation in hostels, which range from farmhouses, water mills and old mansions to modern specially designed hostels, for people of limited means on their travels so that they may be helped to a greater knowledge, love and care of the countryside.

Political Party Organisations : The four major political parties all have national youth organisations, whose aim is to instruct and educate their members in their own particular political doctrine and to train them to take an active part in party life

when adult. Separate membership figures are : Conservative, 50,000 ; Labour, 8,000 ; Liberals, 7,000 ; and Communist, 3,000.

(c) Pre-Service Training

The *Air Training Corps* (founded 1941), the *Army Cadet Force* (founded 1859) and the *Sea Cadet Corps* (founded 1865) for boys are in a different position from the rest of the voluntary organisations in that they are closely related financially and administratively to their respective ministries.

Peace-time objects of the corps are to promote and encourage among young men a practical interest in the services and to fit them to serve their country, to provide training which will be useful both in the services and in civil life, to foster the spirit of adventure and develop the qualities of mind and body which go to the making of a leader and good citizen. Present-day (1948) memberships are approximately : Air Training Corps, 46,000 ; Sea Cadet Corps, 28,960 ; and Army Cadet Force, 112,000.

7. HOUSING

At the end of the war in Europe, during which house-building practically ceased, while enemy action damaged or destroyed about one house in three, Britain was faced with an immediate need for some $1\frac{1}{4}$ million new houses. The first 750,000, it was estimated, would give a separate home to every family who needed one, the rest would replace the worst of the sub-standard housing. The first target has been reached in the autumn of 1948, but it is now seen that 750,000 new houses will not meet even this first need.

Every means of rehousing has been used—in addition to permanent houses built by traditional methods, a programme of 157,000 temporary prefabricated houses is almost complete and some 35 new types of non-traditional permanent houses, developed with the aid of the Government, are going up. Repair or conversion of old houses, and temporary requisitioning of empty properties, supplement new building.

Scarcity of skilled men and materials have been the two major problems. In 1948 the limiting factor is the supply of timber, most of which has to be paid for in dollars. The mid-1948 level of activity of about 200,000 houses under construction is to be maintained for as long as resources permit.

Much research has been, and is being, done on design, construction and equipment. In spite of the shortage, standards of accommodation in permanent houses built by local authorities are not merely maintained but improved.

The Government grants new and larger housing subsidies and has organised the building and allocation of houses on a system designed to serve first those families least adequately housed and those workers, mainly in agriculture or mining, who have the most important part to play in the nation's productive effort. The policy is to concentrate on building modest houses to let and to entrust their building for the most part to local authorities. Private building is allowed only under licence and has not been allowed at any time to exceed a proportion of one house to four local authority houses.

(a) Administration in England and Wales

The *Ministry of Health* is the Government Department primarily responsible in England and Wales for formulating housing policy, for housing standards, and for the general supervision of the housing programme. Since 1939 ministerial responsibility for housing has been extended to certain other Departments. The *Ministry of Works* and the *Ministry of Supply* act as suppliers of building materials and equipment to the Minister of Health. The Ministry of Works, besides being the production authority for the main building materials, is responsible for general building

research, for relations with the building industry, for the programming of building resources and for the operation of the licensing system, for which it uses the local authorities as its agents. The Ministry of Supply is the production authority for housing components produced by the engineering industry, and for certain types of houses such as steel and aluminium houses. The *Ministry of Town and Country Planning* is responsible for giving planning approval to housing proposals. It assists in the choice of housing sites, the layout of housing estates and all general questions affecting the use of land and the planned distribution of communities. The *Ministry of Agriculture* is responsible for deciding whether a piece of land ought to be retained for agriculture or to be alienated to housing. The *Board of Trade* is the distribution authority for timber and the *Ministry of Labour and National Service* regulates the supply of labour to the building industry and its ancillary trades. The *War Damage Commission* supervises payments for repair of war damage.

Close liaison at all levels, in the Regions as well as at Headquarters, is maintained between the various Government Departments concerned with housing. The Ministry of Health maintains, at Regional Offices, Principal Housing Officers responsible for day-to-day liaison with local authorities on all matters connected with their housing programmes. These Officers have full authority to deal with all normal approvals, authorisations, etc., and need refer to headquarters only matters of special difficulty or points of major policy.

Housing Powers and Duties of Local Authorities : While responsibility for housing policy and for the general execution of the housing programme rests with the Minister of Health, local authorities have executive responsibility for housing in their areas as well as being responsible to the Ministry of Works for the local operation of the licensing system. These local authorities are the Councils of Counties, of County Boroughs, and, in London, Metropolitan Boroughs, of Urban Districts or of Rural Districts. The housing powers of County Councils, however, are very restricted except those of the London County Council, which is by far the biggest housing authority in Britain.

The housing functions of these authorities are to ensure as far as possible that (a) the housing requirements of their areas are satisfactorily met, and (b) the dwelling houses in their areas comply with certain statutory specifications as to design, construction, equipment, etc.

(For administration in Scotland and Northern Ireland, see below, p. 133.)

(b) War Damage and Arrears of Building

Out of about 13 million houses in the United Kingdom at the outbreak of war in 1939, nearly 4½ millions were damaged or destroyed by enemy action. 210,000 houses were totally destroyed, 250,000 were so badly damaged as to be rendered uninhabitable, besides 4 millions that received slight damage.

More serious than war damage in creating the acute post-war shortage of houses were the almost complete cessation of new building and the minimum level of normal repair and maintenance work in the war years.

War-time shortage of labour and materials, together with the pressing demands of essential construction work for war purposes, meant that the amount of house-building possible in the war years was barely sufficient to cancel the losses by war damage. The number of houses completed between September, 1939, and May, 1945 (most of which were under construction on the day war broke out), did not exceed 200,000, of which 36,000 were in Scotland.

By 1938 the rate of building had reached 346,000 houses a year in England and Wales, and 26,000 a year in Scotland. Calculated at this rate the war years put Great Britain nearly two million houses in arrears.

(c) Housing Policy

Limited resources of men and materials in relation to the need for post-war reconstruction have made essential a system of planned priorities, and hence of controls. In August, 1945, housing was given first priority in the national reconstruction programme, a priority shared only with factories for development areas and one or two other essential forms of construction. About 60 per cent of the nation's building resources has been applied to housing.

In the autumn of 1947 Britain's economic position necessitated a revision of the national programme of capital expenditure and a reduction of expenditure on imports. To save dollars, imports of softwood timber in 1948 have had to be reduced, and the amount of timber that can be imported will set the limit to the number of houses that can be built in 1949. The provisional estimate is that there will be enough timber in 1949 to maintain the mid-1948 level of about 200,000 houses under construction (180,000 in England and Wales and 20,000 in Scotland).

It is the Government's policy to concentrate as great as possible a proportion of the supplies available for housing on new construction, keeping repair and maintenance work down to a minimum.

The policy is to meet the greatest needs first and to do this by concentrating on the building of modest houses to let. Developments in 1947 led to special concentration on houses for miners and agricultural workers, who have the most important part to play in the nation's productive effort.

To carry out this policy the Government gives preference to building by local authorities (that is, normally, by private builders under contract to a local authority).

The reasons for choosing local authorities as the main instrument to carry through the housing programme are that local authorities are considered to be in a better position than private enterprise to build houses to let and within the reach of tenants who could not afford to buy; that local authorities are able to select tenants according to need; and that local authorities are a more "plannable" instrument than private enterprise.

Private house-building can be carried on only under licence from the local authority (under Defence Regulations) and is restricted to houses having a superficial floor area of not more than 1,500 sq. feet and a maximum contract or selling price fixed according to the size and type of house. Except for the period from August, 1947, to June, 1948, when the issue of licences for private house-building was limited, normally, to proposals to provide accommodation at approved rents for miners or agricultural workers and the rebuilding of war-destroyed houses, the issue of licences has been restricted to a rate allowing a maximum of one privately built house for every four houses built by the local authority. Licences for private houses to be built for sale are now issued to prospective owner-occupiers, instead of to house-builders, in order to ensure that the new houses go to families in genuine need of them.

A licence from the local authority is required for all repair or maintenance work estimated to cost more than £100 in one year.

Standards of Accommodation. Local authorities are now building bigger and better houses than ever before. The minimum floor area for a three-bedroomed two-storey house has been increased from 800 square feet to 900 square feet, and 900 square feet to 950 square feet is regarded as the appropriate range. This allows for two good-sized bedrooms and one smaller one, two good-sized rooms plus kitchen or scullery on the ground floor, a bathroom on the first floor and a W.C. on both floors. Along with the improvement in space standards goes an improvement in standards of design and equipment in full accordance with the recommendations of the *Design of Dwellings Sub-Committee* which reported to the Minister of Health

in 1944. The new houses are fitted with a hot water system, better lighting, larger windows, fitted cupboards and improved kitchen equipment.

Houses of somewhat larger size may be included in local authority estates where it is necessary to secure mixed development.

Licences to build private houses are granted on condition that they are built to a standard satisfactory to the local authority and are open to inspection for this purpose.

(d) State Aid for Housing

(i) Subsidies

In order to enable local authorities, notwithstanding the present high cost of building, to let their houses at reasonable rents, subsidies are provided under the *Housing (Financial and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act*, April, 1946.

The former Act provides for a General Standard Subsidy of £22 per house per year for 60 years, the estimated amount of the annual deficit on a standard house assuming an average net rent (exclusive of rates) of 10s. per week (though actual rents will vary in different districts). The Exchequer contribution to this subsidy is fixed at £16 10s. per annum, the balance of £5 10s. to be met by the local authority.

Special rates of subsidy are provided by the Act for special types of housing. For houses for the agricultural population a Special Subsidy of £28 10s. (Exchequer £25 10s., County Council £1 10s., local authority £1 10s.) is provided. This higher subsidy is calculated on the basis of the lower average net rent of 7s. 6d. per week. Another Special Subsidy, the same as that for agricultural workers' houses, is paid for houses in "poor areas" (where there is a population of low rate-paying capacity). There is also a graduated subsidy scale for blocks of flats on expensive sites, and for houses built on such sites as part of "mixed development" of flats and houses. An addition to the special subsidy for flats is made for lifts where blocks exceed three storeys. Another special subsidy is provided where expensive works are necessary in order to minimise the risk of subsidence due to mining operations.

To accelerate the provision of houses by the use of non-traditional building methods an additional capital payment has hitherto been provided under the same acts to be made to local authorities for houses built by approved non-traditional methods to cover the extra cost above the average cost of a comparable traditional house, where the cost substantially exceeded that amount. This grant is only payable in respect of proposals approved before the end of 1947. Subsequently it is considered that non-traditional systems should be able to compete in price with traditional construction. The total cost of these capital grants is estimated at £5½ millions for 1947-8 and at £13,600,000 for 1948-9.

(ii) Building Resources

In order to secure that the best use is made of the limited building resources available, the national building programme is co-ordinated by a series of inter-departmental committees (central and regional).

The use of timber and steel is subject to strict government control, and other scarce materials are subject to a priority distribution scheme under which priority certificates are granted for work which provides new housing accommodation and for repairs that are very urgent for reasons of health or safety.

To recruit the labour force needed immediately special early release from the Forces was granted to building trade workers, a special register of workers with building experience compiled, and a special training scheme instituted.

The Building Apprenticeship and Training Council set up in 1943 keeps under review the long-term labour needs of the industry and recommends to the Government measures to maintain the necessary flow of new entrants.

(iii) *Temporary Houses*

To help to meet the immediate need for more houses the Government undertook, in addition to the permanent housing programme, a programme of temporary houses, factory-built and therefore making small demand on the skilled building labour that is in such short supply.

Temporary houses are of the single-storey two-bedroom type. The parts are made in factories and assembled on the sites. These houses are smaller than the permanent houses and are designed to last for ten years only, though it is expected that some will be good for a considerably longer period. They have built-in labour-saving equipment and fittings, and must not be confused with the hutments erected in some badly blitzed areas in London to provide temporary shelter for the bombed-out.

The temporary houses have been provided by the Ministry of Works for erection on sites provided by local authorities. A sum of £220,000,000 has been voted by Parliament for this purpose.

Local authorities are responsible for letting and collecting the rents of temporary houses, and are normally required to pay to the Ministry of Health a fixed annual sum in respect of each house so long as it stands. In allocating the houses to tenants the local authorities give priority to the applicants in greatest need of accommodation. The rents charged are very moderate, ranging normally from 10s. to 15s. per week, plus local rates. Tenants especially appreciate the modern fittings.

(iv) *Non-Traditional Permanent Houses*

The shortage of skilled building labour and traditional building materials has also led to the development of a number of non-traditional forms of construction for permanent houses which economise in both. Some types are steel-framed, some of pre-cast concrete, some of concrete poured *in situ* and some timber-framed. Two types, the B.I.S.F. steel house for urban areas and the Airey rural pre-cast concrete house for rural areas, are being produced in quantity under arrangements made by the Government for erection by local authorities. In addition, production of the aluminium bungalow, which is completely prefabricated and can be assembled on the site in a matter of hours, and which was originally provided under the temporary housing programme, is being extended as part of the permanent house programme to meet special and urgent housing needs in mining and other key industrial areas.

(e) *Control of Rents and Prices*

Legislation has prevented the shortage of housing that inevitably arises from war conditions from leading to an excessive rise in rents—the *Rent and Mortgage Interest (Restrictions) Act*, 1939, provided protection for tenants of unfurnished dwellings below a certain rateable value by limiting the rent that can be charged and giving security of tenure so long as the rent is paid. Similar protection was given to anyone buying a house on mortgage. The 1939 Act is one of a series of similar acts passed from 1915 onwards, the principal act being the Act of 1920.

The rents paid for furnished accommodation in England and Wales are controlled by the *Furnished Houses (Rent Control) Act*, 1946. The Act applies to those districts, now in the majority, in which the Minister of Health has by order directed that it shall have effect. The Act provides for the control of rents of houses, or parts of houses, let furnished or with services without limitation by rateable value. Local tribunals appointed for the purpose determine the rents of furnished lettings in cases referred to them by either party or by the local authority. The first such tribunal in England and Wales was set up in London in June, 1946. By the end of June, 1948, 26,629 cases had been referred to tribunals in England and Wales and rents reduced in 71 per cent of the 17,468 cases which were proceeded with and decided.

The Building Materials and Housing Act, December, 1945, provided a further safeguard by (*inter alia*) limiting for a period of four years the rent and purchase price of any house constructed under licence granted for the purpose of a Regulation made under the *Emergency Powers (Defence) Acts, 1939 to 1945*, that is, in effect, any house built by private enterprise since the late war.

(f) Scotland

In Scotland housing is a function of the Secretary of State, whose housing and town and country planning responsibilities are exercised through the Department of Health for Scotland.

A special statutory body, the *Scottish Special Housing Association*, has been established to assist local authorities (particularly those in the areas of greatest need) in their ordinary housing programme. The Association is a limited company with no share capital, financed entirely from government funds, and works under the general direction of the Secretary of State. It is expected that the Association will be responsible for building about one-fifth of the half-million houses required in Scotland. (Scotland had something over $1\frac{1}{4}$ million houses when this estimate was made.) By mid-1948 it had built 3,571 houses and had 7,446 building.

The standard of new housing in Scotland is similar to that in England and Wales and in accordance with the recommendations of the Scottish Housing Advisory Committee (see "Planning Our New Homes," H.M.S.O., 1944, 3s.).

Subsidies similar to those operating in England and Wales are provided in Scotland under the *Housing (Financial Provisions) (Scotland) Act, June, 1946*. The amounts are in general higher, mainly on account of the different rating system in Scotland.

Scotland pioneered rent control for furnished lettings under the *Rent of Furnished Houses Control (Scotland) Act, 1943*. There are minor differences between the rent control systems operating in Scotland and in England and Wales.

(g) Northern Ireland

In Northern Ireland the Ministry of Health and Local Government is responsible for housing and planning, while the supply functions of the Ministry of Works and Supply in England are shared between the Ministry of Commerce and the Works Branch of the Ministry of Finance.

The *Northern Ireland Housing Trust*, a body similar to the Scottish Special Housing Association, was set up under the *Housing Act (Northern Ireland), 1945*, as an additional agency for the building of workers' houses in Northern Ireland. The Trust is government-financed and has power to acquire and dispose of land, and to carry out building schemes subject to government approval. The Ministry of Health and Local Government indicates to the Trust the districts in which it should build and is guided in this by the contribution which the local authority is itself making to the housing needs of its area. The Trust is expected to build, in ten years, a quarter of the 100,000 houses that Northern Ireland needed at the end of the war. (In 1939 there were about 329,000 houses in Northern Ireland.) By 30th June, 1948, the Trust had completed 1,444 houses, it had 2,481 houses under construction, and a total of 7,587 sites had been acquired.

(h) Progress since the War

During the period 31st March to 30th June, 1948, accommodation was provided in Great Britain—by construction of new houses and by repair of damaged, unoccupied houses and by requisitioning and conversion of existing houses—for a total of 749,273 families. In England and Wales during the same period 771,000 dwellings which were damaged during the war, but not so severely as to be unfit for occupation, were repaired.

Details of achievement by the end of June, 1948, are given in the following table :

SUMMARY OF POST-WAR HOUSING PROGRESS FROM 1ST APRIL, 1945, TO 30TH JUNE, 1948

	England and Wales	Scotland	Great Britain
New Houses Completed (including war-destroyed houses rebuilt) :—			
Permanent	283,019	27,511	310,530
Temporary	123,437	29,734	153,171
Total	406,456	57,245	463,701
Unoccupied War-damaged Houses Repaired and Conversions and Adaptations	227,222	3,461	230,683
Requisitioned Unoccupied Houses..	27,455	3,458	30,913
Temporary Huts	3,480	—	3,480
Total Families Rehoused .. (excluding 20,496 accommodated in Service Camps)	664,613	64,164	728,777
Houses under Construction :—			
Permanent	166,752	44,720	211,472
Temporary	1,368	2,298	3,666
Total	168,120	47,018	215,138
Sites Acquired by Local Authorities			
For Permanent Houses	762,890	156,710	919,600
For Temporary Houses	124,455	31,845	156,300
Total	887,345	188,555	1,075,900
Site development begun	456,434	96,734	1,453,168
Site development completed ..	369,989	80,874	1,250,863
Housing Labour Force*	473,400	58,700	532,100

***Does not include German prisoners engaged in the preparation of sites.**

Northern Ireland : Between 1st April, 1945, and 30th June, 1948, 3,723 permanent houses were built in Northern Ireland, and 5,697 houses were under construction at the latter date.

IV. COMMUNICATIONS

1. INLAND TRANSPORT

(a) The Transport Act, 1947

All developments in the transport world have been overshadowed by the Transport Act which became law on 6th August, 1947.

This Act was described by the Minister of Transport (Mr. A. Barnes) as "the largest and most extensive socialisation measure ever presented to a free and democratic Parliament." Its general purpose is defined as "to provide, or secure or promote the provision of an efficient, adequate, economical and properly integrated system of public inland transport and port facilities within Great Britain for passengers and goods."

The central feature of the Act is the establishment of the British Transport Commission, consisting of a Chairman (Sir Cyril Hurcomb) and between four and eight other members, appointed by the Minister. On 1st January, 1948, all major railway and canal undertakings (including the docks, harbour works and hotels owned by the railways) and most privately owned railway wagons passed under the control of the Commission. That is the first and immediate effect of the Act. Secondly, it is incumbent on the Commission to acquire long-distance—over 40 miles—road haulage undertakings, except those carrying their own goods exclusively (C licence holders). Thirdly, the Commission may prepare area schemes for co-ordinating road passenger services. Lastly, the Commission will keep harbours, other than dockyards and ports normally used by pleasure and fishing vessels, under continuous review with the aim of preparing similar area schemes.

A Central Transport Consultative Committee for Great Britain will be set up together with separate committees for Scotland, Wales, and for such areas as the Minister may think fit, but covering the whole of Great Britain. The Act applies to Northern Ireland only in so far as the transferred railways and canals have interests there.

As agents to the Commission there are the following five bodies, the members being appointed by the Minister: (i) The Railway Executive; (ii) The London Transport Executive; (iii) The Road Transport Executive; (iv) The Docks and Inland Waterways Executive; (v) The Hotels Executive.

The Railway Rates Tribunal is to be renamed the Transport Tribunal and acquire the jurisdiction exercised by the Railway and Canal Commission.

Compensation for assets and undertakings transferred has been made in the form of redeemable British Transport 3 per cent Stock guaranteed by the Treasury and is computed broadly as follows:

For Railways and Canals: On the quoted Stock Exchange value of the railway stocks at the beginning of November, 1946, or pre-election, whichever was the higher.

For Road Haulage: On the value of the assets at the date of transfer plus an amount in respect of cessation of business, plus, in certain circumstances, an amount for "severance."

For Local Authorities' Undertakings: On the sum necessary to cover the interest and sinking fund charges.

For privately owned railway wagons: On the value at the date of transfer.

The value of stock in respect of railways and canals alone is no less than £1,065,000,000. No estimate of the amount to be paid in compensation for other undertakings can yet be made. British Transport Stock up to £250,000,000 is also to be created for the purpose of borrowing money for capital needs. Further, the Commission may raise temporary loans not exceeding £25,000,000. The Act

lays down that the Commission must create a general reserve as a "cushion" against frequent fluctuations in charges.

The Commission's general duty is "so to conduct its undertakings that the revenue is not less than sufficient for meeting charges properly chargeable to revenue taking one year with another." A copy of the Commission's Report is to be laid annually before each House of Parliament. The accounts of the Commission, to be published annually, will provide, as far as possible, separate information in respect of the principal activities of the Commission.

The following figures give an idea of the scope of the new Commission's responsibility :—

Railways

Companies	60
Track Mileage	52,000
Locomotives	20,000
Passenger rolling stock	45,000
Companies' wagons	660,000
Privately owned wagons	575,000
Steamships	94
Employees	680,000

Canals

Companies (apart from railway-owned companies)	19
Navigable mileage	1,640

Roads

A & B Licence holders	47,700
Vehicles	140,700
Bus and Coach operators (including 95 local authorities) ..	4,800
Tram and Trolley Bus operators (including 89 local authorities)	106
Buses and Coaches	53,000
Goods Transport Staff	143,000
Passenger Transport Staff	225,000

The operation of public transport services by railway, motor vehicles, canals and in connection with the ports absorbs about 6 per cent of the total working population.

(b) Railways

The nationalisation of the railways has in no way affected their programme of restoration and development necessitated by six years of war, when they bore an unparalleled strain and when reconstruction, beyond the barest essentials, was impossible.

Repairs of permanent way and construction of locomotives, carriages and wagons are the immediate tasks in hand. Beyond this the railways have a long-term programme of development including extension of electrification, improvement of signalling appliances, mechanisation of goods depots and marshalling yards, and modernisation of stations, hotels and refreshment rooms. A start has been made on all these plans, but their full implementation lies now, of course, with the British Transport Commission.

(c) Roads

In December, 1946, the Minister of Transport announced his intention to make a start with a ten-year road plan. The Government's policy, as previously announced (May, 1946), is the "promotion of safety on the highways, improvements to assist Development Areas in particular and industrial development generally, including better access to ports and markets; improved through communications; rehabilitation and improvement of towns and countryside; the redevelopment of devastated areas; the improvement of access between the home and the workshop or office,

and reduction of traffic congestion ; and, in the country, the promotion of the efficiency of agriculture."

Among the more immediate projects were to have been the Severn Bridge, the longest suspension bridge in Europe, and for which the foundation borings have now been completed, the Jarrow Tunnel under the River Tyne, and the Lower Thames Tunnel, of which the pilot had already been driven before the war. In later stages the plan envisages the reconstruction of the principal national routes and the provision of new roads reserved for motor traffic.

Unfortunately the need to concentrate national resources on work which will increase exports and reduce the need for imports, has caused the postponement of the projects mentioned above. Certain others, however, because of their importance to industrial production, or because they are necessary to maintain essential communications, have been allowed to proceed. Examples are Deptford Creek Bridge, London, and road-diversion at I.C.I. works, Teesside.

The Road Safety Campaign has continued under the Ministry of Transport, with the co-operation of the Government Departments concerned and the Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents. Figures for deaths in Great Britain for the years 1938-1947 are as follows :—

1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947
6,648	8,272	8,609	9,169	6,926	5,796	6,416	5,256	5,062	4,881

In 1946, 157,484 people were injured, and in 1947, 161,318.

The basic ration of petrol, which had remained unchanged from July, 1946, giving about 270 miles of motoring per month, was withdrawn on 1st October, 1947, in order to conserve dollar resources. A committee was later set up to inquire into the black market in petrol, the existence of which was one of the obstacles to restoring the basic ration. On 8th April, 1948, the Minister of Fuel and Power announced that following the adoption of certain recommendations made by this committee, the ration would be restored on 1st June to give about 90 miles of motoring per month. This would be accomplished without increasing the total consumption of petrol, through the medium of the committee's recommendations and certain other economies.

(d) London's Traffic Problem

Although the population of the London Transport area is still 200,000 below the pre-war figure its traffic problems have increased. More people are living on the fringes with a consequent increase of movement between place of residence and work. The most obvious result of this shift of population is the strain imposed upon London Transport. The following census is illustrative of the problem :

COMPARATIVE FIGURES,
pre-war and in 1946, showing vehicles and car-mileage operated by
London Transport and passenger journeys originating on the systems
operated by London Transport on a typical weekday (Tuesday).

	Pre-war			1946		
	Rail	Central Buses	Trams and Trolley Buses	Rail	Central Buses	Trams and Trolley Buses
Vehicles	2,770	4,796	2,358	2,908	4,879	2,336
Car-Mileage	514,718	648,383	328,413	582,637	656,083	311,628
Passenger Journeys	1,431,417	5,488,994	2,981,282	1,686,254	6,515,872	3,396,281

The crux of the matter is the "rush-hour," morning and evening. Of the 800,000 morning (i.e., 7.0-10.0 a.m.) passengers, half travel between 8.30 and 9.30. Of the 850,000 evening (i.e., 4.30-7.0 p.m.) passengers half travel between 5.0 and 6.0.

To combat this congestion a campaign was launched at the end of 1946 by the Minister of Transport, who initiated a series of conferences between local authorities, business interests, employers and workers. The aim of the conferences was the co-operation of all parties in the staggering of working hours and the consequent amelioration of travelling conditions. So far, adjustments have been made in the hours of 74,000 workers. It is hoped finally to embrace 120,000.

Other measures taken to relieve traffic congestion include a prohibition of street-trading and the waiting of motor vehicles (except for the purpose of setting down and taking up) in certain streets in Central London. Bombed sites are extensively used for car-parks. New buses and railway cars are on order for London Transport. In use, too, are many new taxi-cabs. 1,000 have been ordered to supplement the 5,600 in the streets, of which 72 per cent are over 10 years old. Before the war, London supported about 8,000 taxis.

The Central Line received further extensions in 1947-8, so that one can now travel from West Ruislip in Middlesex to Hainault in Essex, a distance of 30 miles.

The magnitude of the capital's traffic problems can be roughly perceived by a few figures taken from London Transport's report for 1947 :

Railway Passenger Vehicles	..	..	..	..	3,661
Buses and Coaches	.	.	..	..	7,139
Trams	..	..	..	..	871
Trolley Buses	..	..	..	..	1,747
Service car miles run	..	..	..	..	610,505,363
Passengers carried	..	..	..	..	4,243,579,740
Employees	..	..	..	..	96,963

2. SHIPPING AND SHIPBUILDING

(a) General Tonnage Position

In 1939 the sea-going merchant fleet of the United Kingdom amounted to some 17 million gross registered tons, more than a quarter of the total world tonnage. During the war the fleet suffered losses amounting to over 11 million gross registered tons, or nearly half the total Allied war losses, and by 1945, in spite of new building, the fleet was only about 13 million gross registered tons, or a sixth of the world tonnage. As a result of new building and purchases the fleet had grown to 15½ million gross registered tons by the end of 1947, representing about one-fifth of the total world tonnage. There has been, however, an increase in world shipping tonnage owing to the tremendous war-time output in North America. Most of the war-time construction, both in North America and in the United Kingdom, was of the large bulk-cargo type, unsuitable for many of the normal trade routes, and this, taken in conjunction with the heavy U.K. losses of specialised types, has resulted in a change in the balance of the fleet compared with pre-war.

This is illustrated in the following table where the fall in the amount of medium-sized vessels can be seen as well as the rise in the 5,000 to 10,000 g.r.t. class, which includes the large war-built bulk carriers :

ANALYSIS OF UNITED KINGDOM FLEET (OTHER THAN TANKERS) BY SIZE

Size Group (g.r.t.)	(Tonnage in '000 g.r.t.)			
	September, 1939		December, 1947	
	Tonnage	Percentage	Tonnage	Percentage
500-1,599	784	6	571	5
1,600-4,999	3,473	25	1,888	15
5,000-9,999	6,372	46	7,272	60
10,000 and over	3,234	23	2,381	20
	13,863	100	12,112	100

Great progress was made during 1946 and 1947 towards repairing the damage British shipping suffered during the war, and restoring tonnage from its war-time condition to civilian use. More than half of the huge reconversion programme had been completed by the end of 1947. In order to relieve the pressure for passenger accommodation some ships have been converted on austerity lines, but only until the abnormal demand for space has been satisfied.

Physical losses were made good during the war by American-built ships on charter which had to be returned after the end of hostilities. There was thus revealed a painful gap between pre- and post-war tonnage, a gap which has already been partly filled by newly built ships, but the tonnage which survived the war becomes less economical to maintain with each year that passes. Many of the older ships are overdue for scrapping, and it would not pay to convert them to more modern standards. The proportion of the merchant fleet represented by ships of age 20 years and upwards rose from 21 per cent in 1939 to 25 per cent in 1947. On the other hand, 55 per cent of tonnage was under 10 years of age at the latter date compared with only 32 per cent in 1939, but much of this tonnage consists of the war-built bulk carrier type to which reference has already been made above.

(b) Shipbuilding

(1) New ships for U.K. owners have been delivered at the rate of about three-quarters of a million gross tons a year for the last two years. Despite this, and despite the absorption of some ex-enemy tonnage into the register and the purchase of well over a million tons of American war-built ships, U.K. merchant tonnage is still below the 1939 level.

The continuance of our shipbuilding programme is necessary first to restore the deficiencies in our tonnage caused by the war, and secondly to replace our rapidly ageing fleet.

(2) Apart from this the British shipbuilding industry has a very high export value. The proportion of export work now in hand has been increasing for some time and is now about one-third of the total output. Most of the exports of ships in 1947 were either for countries participating in E.R.P. or for hard currency countries.

(3) In general, emphasis is laid throughout the programme, not only on the need to improve quality, but also on the need to build the right types of ships. There is a great shortage of refrigerated ships, fruit and timber carriers, etc., and, most important of all, tanker tonnage, which falls by a substantial margin to meet a world demand nearly half as great again as pre-war. In 1946 and 1947, 432,000 g.t. of tankers were launched in the United Kingdom out of a world total of 728,000 g.t.

Tanker construction is planned to rise rapidly during the next three or four years.

(4) Apart from the war years, which brought about the tremendous output in North America, the United Kingdom has retained its pre-eminence as a shipbuilding nation. This is established by the following table :

MERCHANT TONNAGE LAUNCHED
(Figures from Lloyd's Register)

Year	World	U.K.	U.K. percentage of World
1935	1.30	0.50	38
1936	2.12	0.86	40
1937	2.69	0.92	34
1938	3.03	1.03	34
1939	2.54	0.63	25
1940	1.75	0.84	48
1941	2.50	1.19	48
1942	7.83	1.28	16
1943	13.89	1.15	8
1944	11.18	0.93	8
1945	7.20	0.90	12
1946	2.13	1.13	53
1947	2.11	1.20	57

Note : (1) The " world " column of this table is incomplete in respect of the launchings in a number of countries for which information was not available during some of the years concerned.

(2) The high figure of world tonnage launched during the war was mainly due to the special war-time building in the U.S.A.

(5) The difficulties experienced in common by all manufacturing countries through scarcity of materials have handicapped the industry since 1945, but supplies both of raw materials and of finished components have improved, and future output is likely to show an increase in recent figures for completion of ships in the U.K. for both home and overseas owners with 986,000 g.t. in 1946 and 949,000 in 1947.

On 30th June, 1948, there were rather more than two million gross tons of shipping under construction in the U.K., representing over one-half of the world total.

(c) Merchant Navy

(i) *Strength.* It is estimated that, excluding Asiatic seamen, the number of officers and men employed in the British Mercantile Marine at the present time is 138,000.

(ii) *Seamen's Welfare.* In April, 1948, general responsibility for the welfare of merchant seamen in this country and of British merchant seamen in overseas ports passed from the Ministry of Transport to the newly established Merchant Navy Welfare Board, a body comprising representatives of shipowners, seafarers, voluntary societies, and the appropriate Government Departments.

The new board was set up as the result of an agreement between the National Maritime Board and the main voluntary organisations, with the approval of the Government Departments concerned.

Port Welfare Committees (15 in all in the U.K.) are being continued by the Board, subject to any necessary minor adjustments in their membership, and Regional

Seamen's Welfare Officers have been appointed in London, Cardiff, Liverpool, Newcastle and Glasgow, whose areas will cover all ports of any importance on the coast of the United Kingdom.

Existing Merchant Navy Houses and Clubs, for which the Ministry of Transport was formerly responsible, have been transferred to the Board, who will manage them direct, or to voluntary societies, who will run them as their own establishments, but on the same lines as hitherto.

In a few instances, war-time premises for which there is no further need have been closed.

3. CIVIL AVIATION

(a) The Civil Aviation Act, 1946

On 1st August, 1946, the Civil Aviation Act became law. Thus opened a new chapter in the history of British civil air transport.

The Act established national control of British Civil Air Services through three publicly owned Air Corporations, functioning under the general policy supervision of the Minister of Civil Aviation, who is also responsible for the management of airports.

The corporations to whom a monopoly of scheduled air services (for details see (b) below) was granted are :

- British Overseas Airways Corporation ;
- British European Airways Corporation ;
- British South American Airways Corporation.

The Boards of the Corporations are appointed by and responsible to the Minister of Civil Aviation. Although they are required to carry out any direction issued to them by the Minister there is no interference with day-to-day management, and they are accorded the maximum freedom in conducting their internal affairs consistent with the Government's policy and the Minister's responsibility to Parliament. Two advisory committees, " for the purpose of ensuring that due regard is paid to the civil aviation needs of particular areas," have been appointed—one for Scotland, and the other for Northern Ireland. The Chairmen of these committees are members of the British European Airways Corporation.

The Corporations' business is the operation of air services, not the provision of aircraft, which are ordered by the Ministry of Civil Aviation and manufactured under the control of the Ministry of Supply. Accordingly, they are forbidden to manufacture airframes, aero-engines or airscrews unless expressly authorised to do so by the Minister.

The Corporations must conduct their business as far as possible on the lines of an ordinary commercial undertaking. Their accounts are kept in conformity with commercial practice and, with reports of their operations, must be laid annually before Parliament (see above, p. 39). In order to carry the Corporations over the initial period of operation annual grants may be made from the Exchequer in respect of deficiencies of receipts over expenditure until 1956, by which time it is hoped that they will be on a firm financial basis.

The Act provides for full consultation with representative interests on terms and conditions of service for employees of the three Corporations. A National Joint Council for Civil Air Transport as the central piece of consultative machinery has been established to secure the development of the largest possible measure of joint action between the Corporations and their employees, with a view to the maintenance of good conditions in civil air transport, and the promotion of the best interests of all concerned. This Council has powers to form Sectional Joint Panels for such groups of employees as it may decide. The Minister is also required

to make regulations which will provide for the establishment and maintenance of superannuation schemes and benefits in case of death or injury for employees of any of the three Corporations.

The Act reserves to the Corporations and their agents and associates the right to carry passengers or goods for hire or reward upon "scheduled" journeys between any two places, at least one of which is in the United Kingdom. A scheduled journey is defined as "one of a series of journeys which are undertaken between the same two places and which together amount to a systematic service operated in such a manner that the benefits thereof are available to members of the public from time to time seeking to take advantage of it." The effect of this provision is to permit *bona fide* charter flying but to prevent trespass on the field of scheduled services, which are the sole prerogative of the Corporations. The Corporations, however, are free to compete with private undertakings for charter business if they so desire, but any charter work is purely incidental to their main business.

No restrictions are imposed in connection with instructional flying or upon operating air ambulance or rescue services, even if these amount to a scheduled service.

An Air Transport Advisory Council was set up under the Act in June, 1947. Its duty is "to consider any representation from any person with respect to the adequacy of the facilities provided by any of the three Corporations, or with respect to the charges for any such facilities." It has the further duty of considering questions put to it by the Minister. The Council is required to make an annual report of its proceedings, which the Minister must lay before Parliament together with a statement of any action taken by him thereon.

(b) The Corporations

BOAC	BEAC	BSAAC
(a) <i>Chairman</i>		
Sir Harold Hartley	Mr. G. d'Erlanger	Mr. J. W. Booth
(b) <i>Headquarters</i>		
Airways Terminal, Buckingham Palace Road, London, S.W.1	Keyline House, Northolt, Middlesex	Starways House, King Street, St. James's, S.W.1
(c) <i>Main Airports</i>		
Heathrow (London Airport) Hurn (Hampshire) Southampton (Flying Boat Base)	Northolt, Middlesex	Heathrow (London Airport)
(d) <i>Staff as at mid-1948</i>		
H.Q. Staff .. 3,400	1,359	Total Staff :
Other U.K. Staff 9,733	5,541	(September, 1948)
Overseas Staff 7,732	610	1,585
Total .. 20,865	7,510	1585

(b) The Corporations (Contd.)

BOAC	BEAC	BSAAC
(e) Routes as at mid-1948 Atlantic (U.S.A., Canada and Bermuda) Tiger (India, Pakistan and Ceylon) Springbok (East and South Africa) Dragon (Far East) Kangaroo (Australia) West African Middle East and Persian Gulf	Internal Continental	Caribbean and South America (West Coast and East Coast)
(f) Services and Frequency as at mid-1948 New York (via Shannon, Gander) three a week New York (via Prestwick, Gander) three a week Montreal (via Prestwick, Gander) six a week Calcutta (via Tripoli, Cairo, Basra, Karachi, Delhi) three a week Colombo (via Tripoli, Cairo, Basra (home only), Karachi, Bombay) one a week Karachi (flying boats) (via Marseilles, Augusta, Cairo, Basra, Bahrein) one a week Delhi (via Tripoli, Cairo, Basra, Karachi) one a week Johannesburg (via Tripoli, Cairo, Khartoum, Nairobi, Salisbury) one a week (Also one weekly cargo and mail service only) Johannesburg (flying boats) (via Augusta, Cairo, Luxor (out only), Khartoum, Port Bell, Victoria Falls) two a week Dar-es-Salaam (via Tripoli, Cairo, Khartoum, Nairobi) two a week Nairobi (via Tripoli, Cairo, Khartoum) three a week Iwakuni (flying boats) (via Marseilles (out only), Augusta, Cairo, Bahrein, Karachi, Calcutta, Rangoon, Bangkok, Hong Kong) one a week Hong Kong (flying boats) (via Marseilles (out only), Augusta,	Amsterdam daily Athens seven a week Berlin six a week Bordeaux eleven a week Brussels three daily Copenhagen daily Cyprus three a week Frankfurt six a week Geneva daily Gibraltar two a week Hamburg six a week Istanbul two a week Lisbon five a week Madrid six a week Malta two a week Marseilles nine a week Nice three a week Oslo three a week Paris six daily Prague three a week Rome nine a week Stockholm daily Vienna six a week Zurich daily There are also frequent internal U.K. services	Nassau (via The Azores, Bermuda) one a week Santiago (West Coast route) (via The Azores, Bermuda, Jamaica, Barranquilla, Lima) one a week Santiago (East Coast route) (via Lisbon, Dakar, Natal, Rio de Janeiro (out only), Sao Paulo, Montevideo, Buenos Aires) one a week Rio de Janeiro (via Lisbon, Dakar, Natal) one a week Buenos Aires (via Lisbon, Dakar, Natal, Rio de Janeiro, Montevideo) two a week Havana (via Lisbon, Azores, Bermuda, Nassau) one a week The following shuttle services are also operated : Kingston - Nassau three a week Kingston - Miami three a week

(b) The Corporations (Contd.)

BOAC	BEAC	BSAAC
Cairo, Bahrein, Karachi, Calcutta, Rangoon, Bangkok) one a week Sydney (flying boats) (via Marseilles, Augusta, Cairo, Basra, Bahrein, Karachi, Calcutta, Rangoon, Singapore, Sourabaya, Darwin, Bowen) three a week Sydney (via Tripoli, Cairo, Basra (home only), Karachi, Calcutta, Singapore, Darwin) three a fortnight (cargo and mail service only) Accra (via Tripoli, Kano, Lagos) five a week Cairo (via Marseilles, Malta, El Adem) eight a week (also <i>ad hoc</i> cargo service) Teheran (via Marseilles, Rome, Athens, Nicosia, Baghdad) one a week Bahrein (via Malta, El Adem, Basra, Koweit) one a week (operated by Skyways, Ltd.) The following extensions and shuttle services also operate : New York-Bermuda four a week Baltimore-Bermuda three a week Singapore-Hong Kong three a week) Cairo-Nairobi one a week Cairo-Aden one a week Cairo-Addis Ababa one a week Aden-Addis Ababa two a week Aden-Riyan one a fortnight Colombo-Singapore one a week		

(g) Mileage, Passengers and Freight for 1947-8 Financial Year

	BOAC	BEAC	BSAAC
Unduplicated Route Mileage	52,130	13,044	18,375
Aircraft miles flown	28,610,187	12,999,610	4,835,552
Passenger miles	309,452,350	124,757,504	52,705,519
Freight and Mail ton miles ..	14,505,648	2,131,689	3,923,068
Passengers carried	110,673	520,970	14,063

(c) Air Safety

(i) Accidents

The following table gives accident data for the last ten years. It covers operations on regular air services flown by United Kingdom operators and associated companies on Commonwealth and Empire Routes. Certain war-time services unrepresentative of normal civil operations are excluded and no account is taken of accidents due, or presumed due, to enemy action.

Year	Aircraft Stage Flights	Aircraft Miles Flown	Passenger Miles Flown	Passengers carried (individuals)	Accidents resulting in death	Passengers		Crew	
						Killed	Seriously inj'd	Killed	Seriously inj'd
1947	112,900	39,430,000	442,603,000	586,700	5	24	4	18	1
1946	93,600	33,813,000	352,162,000	434,400	4	29	1	11	2
1945	64,900	27,811,000	295,594,000	247,700	—	—	—	—	—
1944	44,300	18,251,000	167,876,000	167,500	2	10	—	8	—
1943	37,200	11,971,000	114,924,000	130,300	4	45	—	17	—
1942	33,700	9,971,000	96,560,000	107,400	2	15	—	6	1
1941	30,900	8,385,000	72,291,000	87,500	1	—	1	1	—
1940	28,700	6,684,000	53,332,000	71,200	1	4	—	4	1
1939	86,000	13,370,000	66,577,000	210,400	5	9	1	7	3
1938	95,100	14,331,000	56,368,000	222,200	4	12	4	8	1
1937	87,800	10,773,000	49,729,000	244,400	5	5	5	10	1

(ii) Air Safety Board

On 26th November, 1946, the Minister announced the creation of the Air Safety Board in the following words : " If I were asked what is the general policy which I wish to lay down for my Ministry, I should say it would be to pursue, first of all, safety ; secondly, safety ; thirdly, safety ; and then, regularity, adequacy of service, and speed. . . . I emphasised the question of safety, and I attach the first importance to it. Consequently I have decided to set up an expert body to exercise responsibility, under my authority, for all matters pertaining to safety in British civil aviation. I am setting up an Air Safety Board which will have these terms of reference :

" To keep under continuous review the needs of safety in British civil aviation and recommend measures calculated to promote safety in respect of both

(a) the operation of British civil aircraft throughout the world ; and

(b) the efficiency of the system of ground facilities provided for civil aircraft of all nations operating over the United Kingdom.

"The Board will be empowered to initiate action in matters of urgency and it will have freedom of initiative in directing inquiry into and study of all aspects of air safety."

(iii) International Aeradio Ltd.

Following the recommendation by PICAQ (Provisional International Civil Aviation Organisation, which was established on 7th December, 1944, as a result of the International Civil Aviation Conference in Chicago) of certain types of navigation aid and landing equipment, the formation of a new company under the chairmanship of Mr. Whitney Straight (Managing Director BOAC), International Aeradio

Ltd., was announced. This company, which is non-profit-making, has been sponsored by the three Corporations and will install and operate telecommunications and radio aids to navigation wherever they are required and would not otherwise be obtainable. The purpose is to achieve a reasonable and uniform standard of navigation and landing aids—and therefore of safety and regularity in air services all over the world. It was evident that if the PICA recommendations were to be implemented throughout the areas served by the expanding international air services many countries would need assistance in the provision and operation of modern communications systems.

(iv) Navigational Aids

“Gee” has been installed over most of Europe and receivers are available for foreign aircraft.

G.C.A. (Ground Control Approach—“talk-you-down”) and the American S.C.S. 51 (blind approach) are in use at Heathrow, which is the only field on the Atlantic route to possess the latter.

S.B.A. (Standard Beam Approach) is being installed at all Britain’s internal air-stops and at continental airports pending further supplies of S.C.S. 51.

F.I.D.O. (fog-disperser) is being persevered with and may be reinstalled at Heathrow.

(d) Research

Civil Aviation Research has been up to now mainly in the hands of private firms, but the Ministry of Supply in 1947 initiated a £20,000,000 National Air Research Scheme. Preparatory work has begun at Bedford and the whole project is expected to take twenty years in completion. Great Britain should, by this scheme, keep well to the front in aerial development.

BEAC has formed an Experimental Helicopter Unit. A consultative committee has been set up including representatives of the Ministries of Civil Aviation, Supply, Town and Country Planning, the Admiralty, the R.A.F., the G.P.O., and Westlands.

(e) The College of Aeronautics

This College was established by the Government as an Empire Centre for the training at post-graduate level of men destined to take leading positions in the aircraft industry, the research establishments, the services, and in education. It was opened on 15th October, 1946, at Cranfield, near Bedford, a few miles from the site of the new Government research establishment (see (d) above). The Principal, Mr. E. F. Relf, was appointed on 1st January, 1946. Control of the College is vested in a board of governors appointed by the Ministry of Education and representing a very wide range of aeronautical interests. There are departments dealing with aerodynamics, aircraft design and aircraft propulsion, together with a department of flight in which students carry out flight experiments to extend knowledge gained in classroom and laboratory. The closely related subjects of mathematics, metallurgy and electronics are also covered. The main activity at present is the two-year course. The first year is devoted to a broad study of aeronautics in all the departments, while in the second year the student specialises according to his future needs.

(f) Private Flying

(i) Committee on Private Flying

In January, 1947, the Minister set up a Special Advisory Committee on Private Flying under the chairmanship of Mr. Whitney Straight to advise on the development of private flying (including gliding) and report from time to time on questions

relating thereto. The membership of the Committee included representatives of various interested bodies, and the preliminary report was published in October.

For Charter Flying see (a) above.

(ii) *Flying (Light Aeroplane) Clubs*

Flying clubs had about 400 aircraft on the outbreak of war. 287 were requisitioned and the remainder were either lost through enemy action or deteriorated into unserviceability. There are now 57 clubs, who between them own a total of 210 aircraft. Privately owned aircraft numbered 253, and 146 are maintained for private use by business concerns. The number of "A" licences issued by the Ministry of Civil Aviation during 1947 was 1,763. The number of such licences current at the end of the year was 3,330.

(iii) *Gliding Clubs*

Gliding in Great Britain is slowly recovering from the effects of the war, when all clubs were closed by the Government and their machines requisitioned for training the Glider Pilot Regiment and the Air Training Corps. About 300 gliders were taken for this purpose.

On 1st January, 1946, the Gliding Clubs were allowed to restart. They had 12 machines between them. There are now 38 clubs with 91 machines. 10 gliding clubs within Service formations own 96 gliders. 1,515 "A," 604 "B" and 314 "C," gliding licences were issued during 1947, and the total held at the end of the year was 11,490.

In June, 1947, a most successful meeting was held.

On 14th July, a British distance gliding record was established, when Mr. C. Wingfield, competing in the U.S. national soaring contest, flew 215 miles, the flight taking 7 hours.

Private flying and gliding will benefit considerably from a loan of £100,000 made available by Lord Kemsley and administered by the Royal Aero Club.

4. GENERAL POST OFFICE

In common with all other services in Great Britain the Post Office has had to face a programme of reconstruction after the war. Physical damage, shortage of materials, increased costs and improved social conditions are all important factors in a heavy task. "It is rather uphill work for the Post Office at present," said the Postmaster-General, Mr. W. Paling, in the House of Commons on 2nd July, 1947, "and if it sometimes stumbles, it is because the hill is at times pretty steep. But we shall get to the top all right."

Latest published figures and those for 1938-9 are given below :—

	1946-7	1938-9
Value of dealings with the Public	£3,354,000,000	£1,062,217,000
Letters delivered	7,120,000,000	8,150,000,000
Parcels delivered	239,000,000	184,832,000
Telegrams delivered	64,000,000	59,310,000
Telephone calls	2,714,000,000	2,236,000,000
Pensions, Services and Billeting Allowances paid	545,000,000	234,368,000
Savings Bank transactions	117,000,000	48,624,000
Telephones provided	877,000	185,000
	(making a total of 4,500,000 in the country)	

	1946-7	1938-9
Total staff	350,000	280,000
includes Postmen	85,900	76,000
Engineers	53,000	40,000
Telephonists	46,000	28,000

The rapid development of aircraft under the stress of war has resulted in a corresponding improvement in long-distance air-mail. Letters between this country and New Zealand now take 5 days compared with 16-21 pre-war ; Australia 3, compared with 12-14 ; while Egypt is reached in 1 day compared with 2½.

The catholicity of Post Office services in Great Britain is not generally recognised, or is at any rate taken for granted. Apart from its primary function of providing means of communication for the public, the Post Office acts as agent for many other Government departments, and the value of its free services to them in the financial year ended 31st March, 1947, was no less than £29,000,000 (£3,330,000 in 1938-9). At its counter the citizen can draw his pension, bank his money, buy a licence for his dog, his gun or his radio set, apply for a licence to drive or own a car, buy stamps for entertainments duty, estate duty, income tax, national savings, and for all forms of state insurance. He can even turn gamekeeper or private brewer on payment of the necessary fee. As Mr. Paling said in Parliament : " The Post Office is such a vast organisation, and its occupations are so many and so different, that I do not find it easy to know where to begin my story."

5. CABLE AND WIRELESS

On 1st January, 1947, Cable and Wireless Limited passed into public ownership under the Cable and Wireless Act, 1946. Sir Stanley Angwin, late Engineer-in-Chief of the Post Office, was appointed its Chairman, and responsibility to Parliament was placed on the Postmaster-General.

On the recommendation of an Imperial Conference, Cable and Wireless Limited was formed in 1929 to acquire the Communications assets of the Eastern and Associated Telegraph Companies and Marconi's Wireless Telegraph Company, the Government-owned Atlantic cables and the Government-operated Beam Wireless Service, and the Pacific Cable Board's wireless and cable systems. The effect was to combine in one company all the telecommunications of the various British wireless and cable undertakings.

As the new company was one which closely concerned the several parts of the Empire, it was essential that its policy should be co-ordinated accordingly. The Commonwealth Communications Council was, therefore, set up by the United Kingdom and Dominion Governments, and has, towards Cable and Wireless Limited, advisory and regulatory functions.

In 1945 the Commonwealth Communications Conference, attended by representatives from the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, India, and Southern Rhodesia, proposed that all private interests in overseas telecommunications, both in the United Kingdom and in the Dominions, should be acquired by the respective Governments, that uniformity of organisation in all the countries of the Commonwealth be reached and that a Commonwealth Telecommunications Board be formed to succeed the Commonwealth Communications Council, with wider power to co-ordinate policy, systems, defence and research.

The *Cable and Wireless Act*, 1946, was the U.K. Government's first step towards full implementation of the proposals of the 1945 Conference.

The assets of the company on transfer to the State included 155,000 nautical miles of submarine cable, 5 cable ships, 4 wireless stations in the United Kingdom, and some 200 offices and cable and wireless stations widely scattered over a large number of countries, 40 of these being in different parts of the Commonwealth.

The company's headquarters and Central Telegraph Station are at Electra House, Victoria Embankment, whence landlines provide connection with 19 offices throughout London, 15 offices in the provinces, Scotland and Northern Ireland, and with the cable station at Porthcurno near Land's End (Cornwall) and wireless stations at Ongar and Brentwood (both Essex), Dorchester (Dorset) and Somerton (Somerset).

Fourteen cables leave Porthcurno, continuing as a series of chains connecting the United Kingdom with Newfoundland, Nova Scotia and Canada, with the east and west coasts of South America, with the West Coast of Africa and South Africa, and with the Mediterranean, Red Sea, India, the Dutch East Indies, Malaya, China and Australasia. Landlines across Canada connect Montreal with British Columbia whence the company's Pacific cable provides a further link with Australia and New Zealand. South Africa is connected via the Indian Ocean with the Dutch East Indies, Australasia, East Africa, Aden, Ceylon and India.

The company operates nearly 150 wireless stations, working with its own stations in British colonies and with local companies or administrations in the Commonwealth, the United States, South America, Spain, Portugal, France, Egypt, etc. Fifteen phototelegraph circuits are operated with Montreal, Melbourne, Colombo, Bombay, Malta, Cape Town, New York (with extension to San Francisco), Berne, Buenos Aires, Cairo, Moscow, Rome and Stockholm.

The "Empire Flat Rate" provides a maximum tariff of 1s. 3d. a word for all Ordinary Telegrams, and 1d. a word for non-urgent Press Telegrams, between all countries of the Commonwealth; Empire Greetings Telegrams are charged at 5d. per word, minimum 12 words.

The full Ordinary Rate for telegrams to New York is 9d. per word, and 10d. to other destinations in the United States.

Following are representative rates to other countries :—

						<i>For Telegrams from Great Britain</i>	
						Per Ordinary (full rate) word	
EUROPE—						s.	d.
France ..	..	..	..	..	..	3	
Greece ..	..	..	..	..	..	4½	
Italy ..	..	..	..	..	..	3½	
Portugal ..	..	..	..	..	..	3½	
Spain ..	..	..	..	..	..	3½	
Sweden ..	..	..	..	..	..	3	
EXTRA EUROPE—							
Argentina ..	..	..	..	..	..	2	1
Australia ..	..	..	..	..	..	1	3
Canada (Eastern Zone) ..	..	..	..	..	..	9	
China ..	..	..	..	..	..	11	
Egypt (Cairo, etc.) ..	..	..	..	..	..	1	3
South Africa ..	..	..	..	..	..	1	3

Special Rates for Press Telegrams per Word
s. d.

To							
All Countries in the British Commonwealth ..						1	
Argentina ..	..	..	..	..	..	6	
China ..	..	..	..	..	..	3½	
Egypt (Cairo) ..	..	..	..	..	..	2½	

Cable and Wireless services include Ordinary (Full Rate) Telegrams, and, at reduced rates, Deferred and Letter Telegrams, in addition to Greetings Telegrams within the Empire.

The company's free routing indication in most countries is "Via Imperial."

6. BROADCASTING

(a) Constitution of the B.B.C.

The B.B.C. started as the British Broadcasting Company in 1922 and became the British Broadcasting Corporation on 1st January, 1927. A public corporation, created by Royal Charter (renewed in 1946 until the end of 1951) and controlled by a Board of Governors, it is neither a Government Department nor a commercial company, nor does it work for profit. It maintains broadcasting stations under licence from the Postmaster-General, with whom it has also an Agreement containing certain general provisions as to the way in which the broadcasting service shall be carried out. While an ultimate control is maintained by Parliament and the Government for the nation, the B.B.C. enjoys wide independence both in constitution and practice (see also p. 37).

(b) Finance

Owners of wireless sets (registered blind persons excepted) pay an annual licence fee of one pound, which is collected by the Post Office. Until the outbreak of war an agreed percentage of this revenue was paid to the B.B.C. to maintain its services. In war time the B.B.C. was financed out of a Grant-in-Aid by Parliament, the income from licence-fees being quite inadequate to support the vast overseas services which have been in operation since 1939. Since 1st January, 1947, the pre-war system of financing out of licence income has been restored for all broadcasting to listeners within the United Kingdom, including television. All external services, including monitoring, will be paid for by Grant-in-Aid. While the B.B.C. has agreed to certain control over the expenditure of this Grant-in-Aid, the policy of all the external services is without exception the responsibility of the Corporation.

To finance itself through the coming period of major development the Corporation has been allotted 85 per cent of the net licence revenue from its listeners for the first three and a quarter years, and whatever is negotiated thereafter. The capital programme which faces the Corporation, if it is to develop British broadcasting to its fullest extent, will in the view of the Governors eventually call for the use of the full licence income throughout the whole of the period.

(c) Policy

The policy of the B.B.C. is governed by the duty laid upon it by its charter to be a medium of information and education as well as of entertainment. It looks on broadcasting as a powerful instrument in the construction of an informed democracy.

The Postmaster-General is responsible to Parliament for technical and financial matters, while the Lord President of the Council, in his capacity as Minister responsible for co-ordinating information policy, governs general policy matters.

A White Paper on Broadcasting Policy (Cmd. 6852, July, 1946) dealt with the future of the B.B.C. and announced that the Government had come to the conclusion that to span the period of transition and to enable new technical developments to reach a point at which their bearing on future broadcasting in this country can be more clearly foreseen, the charter and the licence should be renewed, with certain alterations, for five years only, from 1st January, 1947. The Government proposes to consider well in advance of the expiry of this period the desirability of appointing an independent committee to advise on future broadcasting policy.

It has been argued that the existing system places too much power in the hands of a single corporation, and deprives broadcasting of the advantages of healthy competition.

The Government is, however, satisfied that the present system is best suited to the circumstances of the United Kingdom. Where the number of wavelengths to cover a small and densely populated area is so limited that the broadcasting bands are unable to meet the total national requirements and efforts have to be made to

develop within other bands by means of frequency modulation, an integrated broadcasting system operated by a public corporation is the only satisfactory means of ensuring that the wavelengths available are used in the best interests of the community. Co-ordination and the planned application of resources, rather than their dissipation, are, moreover, likely to lead to the greatest advances both in technique and programmes.

To encourage the spirit of competition in broadcasting the corporation is enhancing the status of its individual regional organisations and fostering a spirit of emulation throughout the service.

The number of broadcast receiving licences in force in Great Britain and Northern Ireland at the end of June, 1948, was approximately 11,260,350, including 54,850 television licences.

(d) Services

Service and Wavelengths	Variations	Particulars
HOME 342.1 m. 296.2 m. 449.1 m. } 285.7 m. } 307.1 m. } 216.8 m. } 391.1 m. 373.1 m. 285.7 m.	<i>The Home Services</i> ENGLAND London Region Midland Region North Region West Region SCOTLAND WALES NORTHERN IRELAND	Object : To reflect the life of the community and to satisfy its tastes and mental and spiritual needs. Characteristic items : news bulletins, broadcasts to schools, religious services, plays, symphony concerts, brains trusts, music-hall and variety, talks. Today there are seven Home Services. Each of these can choose whether to broadcast a programme offered by one of the other Home Services.
1,500 m. 261.1 m.	<i>Light Programme</i>	Begun 29th July, 1945. Object : to entertain its listeners and to interest them in the world at large without failing to be entertaining.
514.6 m. 203.5 m. (For transmission times, see "Radio Times")	<i>Third Programme</i>	Begun 29th September, 1946. Object : to broadcast without regard to length or difficulty the masterpieces of music, of art and of letters which lend themselves to transmission in sound.
OVERSEAS (For wavelengths and transmission times, see "London Calling")	The Dominions The Colonies The U.S.A. The Far East The Near East Latin America	The Overseas Services are all those services in English and other languages directed to lands beyond Europe. Broadly speaking, the Overseas Services have developed from the original Empire Service, whereas broadcasting to Europe was created more particularly by the needs of recent years.

(d) Services (contd.)

Service and Wavelengths	Variations	Particulars
EUROPEAN (For wavelengths and transmission times, see European Programme Bulletin)	General Overseas Service	1947 saw the General Forces Programme of the war return to its peace-time title of General Overseas Service. This Service, which runs continuously throughout the 24 hours and can be heard at suitable times all over the world, is planned for all those who think of the United Kingdom as home. It still continues to cater for the needs of the Forces serving overseas. There are 18 Forces Broadcasting Stations which relay B.B.C. material to the extent of 450 hours a week.
	<i>West European</i> France, Holland, Belgium, Luxembourg	The European Service broadcasts in 24 languages and has at its disposal 4 networks on which 4 simultaneous transmissions to different parts of Europe can go on the air. Broadly speaking, the standard transmission consists of a half-hour programme containing an objective news bulletin, a short talk or commentary on a political or social problem and its treatment in Great Britain, and a feature. The attempt is made to give a comprehensive idea of the British viewpoint on current events, of the British way of life, and to foster the friendly exchange of knowledge in the interests of international understanding. Daily programmes of "English by Radio" are transmitted. Their chief aim is to provide regular practice in understanding the spoken language.
	<i>German-Austrian</i>	
	<i>Scandinavian</i> Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Finland	
	<i>Central European</i> Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary	
	<i>East European</i> Russia, Greece	
	<i>South European</i> Italy, Spain, Portugal	

News.—There are nine news broadcasts daily, in the Home and Light programmes, including a three-minute summary at 11 p.m. in the Home Service. Home Service transmission times are at 7 a.m., 8 a.m., 1 p.m., 6 p.m., 9 p.m., and Light Programme times are 9 a.m., 7 p.m., and 10 p.m., and a summary at 11.56 p.m. The sources on which B.B.C. news draws are threefold: the agencies, the B.B.C. correspondents, and the B.B.C.'s own monitoring service. News is presented objectively and all editorial opinion and outside influence is avoided.

Television : The television service, which had been suspended during the war, was resumed on 7th June, 1946. Television covers every sort of activity from plays and public celebrations to sporting events and cookery demonstrations.

Decisions on the expansion of the services rest with the *Television Advisory Committee*. The present service area is restricted to a radius of roughly forty miles from Alexandra Palace, though there are many reports of good reception at much greater distances. 405 lines, 50 frames interlaced, give 25 complete picture frames per second. Future developments include a transmitter at Birmingham. Experiments are being conducted with a radio link for television.

Addressing the Sixth Imperial Press Conference in London in July, 1946, Sir William Haley, Director-General of the B.B.C., said that television "is an integral part of broadcasting and not an art separate from it. We intend to press on, as fast as physical resources allow, with the task of making it available to as many homes and over as widespread an area of the Kingdom as we possibly can."

An additional licence fee of £1 a year is charged for television sets.

Monitoring : The B.B.C. Monitoring Service listens to, and reports on, broadcasts from foreign countries, with the object of providing Government Departments and the B.B.C. with a comprehensive service of news and intelligence—from both immediate and long-term points of view—drawn from all broadcasts audible in this country. Caversham is the chief reception site, as the maximum number of radio signals can be intercepted there owing to its favourable situation. The monitors, who listen to the various foreign transmissions on earphones according to agreed schedules, are able to record on wax cylinders any transmission which may be of value by the movement of a switch. A Daily Digest of World Broadcasts summarises all the more important items, and the Monitoring Report gives a short survey of the more important political trends and reactions discerned from the broadcasts.

(e) Staff Training

There are three centralised training organisations within the Corporation : a general Broadcasting School, Secretarial School, and an Engineering School. The Broadcasting School was started in 1936 and attracted guest students from all over the world. It lapsed at the beginning of the war. In June, 1941, however, it was reconstituted together with the central Staff Training Department, and by the end of the war nearly 1,000 programme and administrative staff had followed its courses, the chief of which was in Radio Programme Technique. Other tasks were the formation of a skilled Training Reserve, so that vacancies could be filled as they arose, the training of Allied military agents engaged in counteracting enemy propaganda, and of a team to maintain communication with men dropped behind enemy lines at the time of the invasion. The chief post-war work of the school has been in the sphere of resettlement training and in the planning of future enterprise.

7. THE PRESS

(a) Newspapers

Britain possesses a vigorous and independent-minded Press. The comparatively small size of the country favours the "national" newspaper with an enormous circulation. None the less, a healthy and influential Press flourishes also in the provinces.

A selection of British papers with their political leanings* and circulations (as at

*It should be noted that the word "affiliation" is not used. Where a paper's "leaning" is described as Conservative or Liberal this is intended to convey that the paper in question supports the policy of that party. No more than this should be read into the description. There are three exceptions. The Daily Worker is the mouthpiece of the Communist Party, and Reynolds News of the Co-operative Movement. The shares of the Daily Herald are held as to 51 per cent by Odhams Press Ltd., and as to 49 per cent by the Trades Union Congress, which controls the paper's policy. Elsewhere the unsatisfactory description "Independent" has had to be employed.

June, 1948) is given below. In this connection it may fairly be stated that the British public buys its newspaper mainly for entertainment value, that is, for features, sports columns and liveliness in make-up and presentation of news. It is not influenced (or only slightly influenced) by the paper's political views. Witness the General Election of 1945, when the big battalions, Kemsley, Rothermere and Beaverbrook, wielding an enormous circulation of daily, Sunday and evening newspapers in London and the provinces, supported the Conservatives, who none the less lost 173 seats, and opposed the Labour Party, who gained 210.

	Political leanings	Circulation
London morning		
<i>The Times</i>	Independent	239,881
<i>Daily Express</i>	Independent : Imperialist ..	3,855,401
<i>Daily Mail</i>	Independent Conservative ..	2,076,659
<i>Daily Mirror</i>	Independent : Anti-Conservative	3,700,887
<i>Daily Herald</i>	Labour	2,113,856
<i>Daily Graphic</i>	Conservative	771,881
<i>Daily Telegraph</i>	Conservative	906,914
<i>Daily Worker</i>	Communist	117,301
<i>News Chronicle</i>	Liberal	1,619,557
<i>Financial Times</i>	Independent Conservative ..	65,000
London evening		
<i>Evening News</i>	Independent Conservative ..	1,652,646
<i>Evening Standard</i>	Independent : Imperialist ..	780,820
<i>Star</i>	Liberal	1,081,812
Provincial morning		
<i>Birmingham Post</i>	Conservative	41,300
<i>Liverpool Daily Post</i>	Independent	77,512
<i>Manchester Guardian</i>	Liberal	100,000 (approx.)
<i>Yorkshire Post</i>	Conservative	151,524
<i>Glasgow Herald</i>	Independent Conservative ..	94,648
<i>Scotsman</i>	Conservative	70,000 (approx.)
Provincial evening		
<i>Liverpool Echo</i>	Independent	382,169
<i>Manchester Evening News</i>	Liberal	300,000 (approx.)
<i>Yorkshire Evening Post</i>	Conservative	250,877
Sunday		
<i>Sunday Times</i>	Conservative	506,953
<i>Sunday Chronicle</i>	Conservative	1,178,174
<i>Sunday Express</i>	Independent : Imperialist ..	2,578,862
<i>Sunday Dispatch</i>	Independent Conservative ..	2,061,290
<i>Sunday Pictorial</i>	Independent:Anti-Conservative ..	4,004,571
<i>Sunday Graphic</i>	Conservative	1,185,207
<i>Observer</i>	Independent	383,771
<i>People</i>	Labour	4,672,708
<i>News of the World</i>	Independent	7,887,488
<i>Reynolds News</i>	Co-operative	720,209
Weeklies		
<i>Economist</i>	Independent	37,300
<i>Spectator</i>	Independent Conservative ..	53,075

(contd.)

	Political leanings	Circulation
<i>New Statesman & Nation</i>	Socialist	87,000
<i>Tribune</i>	Socialist	18,000
<i>John Bull</i>	Independent	1,045,170
<i>Picture Post</i>	Popular : Illustrated ..	1,229,788
<i>Illustrated</i>	Popular : Illustrated ..	1,060,931
<i>Everybody's</i>	Popular : Illustrated ..	1,045,393
<i>Leader</i>	Popular : Illustrated ..	293,608
<i>Sphere</i>	Illustrated	
<i>Illustrated London News</i>	illustrated	

The following are the best-known groups of ownerships :

- Kemsley Newspapers .. Controlling the *Daily Graphic*, *Sunday Graphic*, *Sunday Times*, *Sunday Chronicle* and some 20 other papers.
- Associated Newspapers .. Controlling the *Daily Mail*, *Evening News*, *Sunday* (Rothermere) *Dispatch* and some 16 other papers.
- Westminster Press .. Controlling some 43 papers.
(entirely provincial)
- Provincial Newspapers .. Controlling some 15 papers.
(London suburbs and provincial)
- Harmsworth Group .. Controlling some 14 papers.
(south-west provinces)
- Illiffe Group Controlling the *Birmingham Post*, *Mail and Weekly Post*, and *Coventry Evening Telegraph*.
- London Express Newspapers Controlling the *Daily Express*, *Sunday Express* and (generally known as the *Evening Standard*.
Beaverbrook Press, but Lord Beaverbrook is no longer a director)

To protect the independence and integrity of their papers certain owners (one so long ago as 1911) appointed trustees. While varying in form and detail the trusts all have the same broad purpose, the subjugation of personal profit to public interest.

The papers are : *News Chronicle* (1911)
The Times (1924)
Manchester Guardian (1936)
Spectator (1928)
Economist (1929)

In September, 1946, the ban on increased circulation, originally imposed in war time to save newsprint, was removed and at the same time the number of pages allowed to newspapers was increased. Circulation had to be pegged again, however, and paging reduced in July, 1947, owing to the economic situation, which necessitated a cut in the import of newsprint.

The fuel crisis that arose in the early part of 1947 resulted in the suspension for a fortnight of all periodicals other than daily, Sunday and evening newspapers, the object being to save power. This action aroused fierce controversy. At the same time it demonstrated one of the finer characteristics of the British Press, for the suspended periodicals were immediately offered space in the pages of the unaffected journals, ill though they could spare it. In several instances the guests were of a very different political colour from that of their hosts.

On 29th October, 1946, the House of Commons decided "that a Royal Commission should be appointed to inquire into the finance, control, management and ownership of the Press," and on 26th March, 1947, the Prime Minister announced the terms of reference, which are : "with the object of furthering the free expression of opinion through the Press and the greatest practicable accuracy in the presentation of news to inquire into the control, management and ownership of the newspaper and periodical Press and the news agencies, including the financial structure and the monopolistic tendencies in control, and to make recommendations thereon." At the same time the Prime Minister gave the list of members, seventeen in number (later reduced to sixteen) and headed by Sir David Ross, the Provost of Oriel College, Oxford.

The Royal Commission held its first meeting on 30th April, 1947. It is expected that the inquiry will be a long one.

(b) News Agencies

There are five news agencies, of which only Reuters runs a world-wide service.

Reuters. This world-wide and world-famous agency has since 1941 been owned and operated by the British Press under a trust agreement which guarantees the independence and integrity of the news service. (It was announced in December, 1946, that the Australian Associated Press and the New Zealand Press Association would become partners with the United Kingdom newspapers in the control of Reuters.)

Press Association, owned by the provincial Press, and itself part-owner with the Newspaper Proprietors' Association (i.e., the London Press) of Reuters.

Exchange Telegraph, closely linked with the Press Association, many services being "joint" : has sole Stock Exchange rights.

The *Associated Press* and the *British United Press*, which are extensions of the two principal American news agencies.

V. FOOD AND AGRICULTURE

1. FOOD POLICY

Britain's system of food control will be continued so long as shortages persist. The Ministry of Food continues as a permanent Department and, as the Minister stated on 7th November, 1945, "the Government accept the responsibility for ensuring that adequate supplies of food necessary to health are available to all members of the public at reasonable prices, and, in accordance with the recommendations of the United Nations' Conference on Food and Agriculture held at Hot Springs in 1943, the responsibility for raising the standard of nutrition of the people.

... "The Government will retain and adapt those controls which are necessary to the carrying out of such a policy. In regard to all those foods which play an important part in the nation's diet, the Government will undertake such responsibility in respect of procurement, distribution and sale as is necessary to ensure that adequate supplies are available at reasonable prices, and to implement such international agreements on commercial and commodity policy as may be concluded. The interest of the consumers will be protected ; provision will be made for the needs of special classes ; the position of the home producer in producing the goods required by the nation from home sources will be safeguarded ; the trader who renders the community a necessary service will receive a fair reward."

Bulk purchase, as the Minister of Food emphasised in Parliament on 1st July, 1947, is an integral part of Britain's general system for the procurement and distribution of foodstuffs in a time of world shortage.

Bulk buying, he pointed out, has many forms and is a very flexible instrument. It may be a direct Government to Government deal or, as it more frequently is,

an overall agreement within which the procurement of food may be left to firms working as agents of the Ministry of Food or as free agents within a given quantity.

The chief merit of bulk buying is that it enables Britain to use the long-term contract which is the best instrument available for increasing the amount of food which Britain can find to buy in the world.

If foodstuffs did not come into Government ownership at one point in their procurement it would be difficult to maintain the rationing system that is indispensable while scarcity persists, it would be still more difficult to maintain the policy of price stabilisation by which prices of staple foodstuffs are brought within reach of all, and it would be difficult for Britain to play her part in systems of international allocation.

Food Subsidies : Prices of the majority of foodstuffs are controlled by Maximum Price Orders. The prices of the main foodstuffs are kept down by Government subsidies, which began in December, 1939. The following table shows the foods being subsidised in September, 1948, the estimated current annual rate of subsidy and the increase in price which would result from the abolition of the subsidy :

UNITED KINGDOM FOOD SUBSIDIES
at September, 1948

Commodity	Estimated Current Annual Rate of Subsidy	Rise in Price if Subsidy were removed
Food	£ m.	Pence
Bacon	15.4	9½ per lb.
Bread	63.7	5½ per 3½ lb. loaf
Flour other than for bread	37.1	13 per 7 lb.
Shell Eggs	20.0	15 per doz.
Carcase Meat	60.2	4½ per lb.
Milk	37.5	1½ per quart.
Butter	36.8	15½ per lb.
Cheese	18.8	12½ per lb.
Margarine (Domestic)	15.2	4½ per lb.
Cooking Fat (Domestic)	2.7	3½ per lb.
Lard	0.3	11½ per lb.
Potatoes	18.6	2½ per 7 lb.
Sugar	19.7	2½ per lb.
Tea	17.1	10½ per lb.
Other Foods	(4.4)	
Animal Feeding-stuffs	66.5	£15 18s. 3d. per ton.
Board of Trade Subsidies on Fertilisers and Molasses	8.3	25-30 per cent.
Welfare Schemes :—		
National Milk Scheme	22.0	
Milk in Schools	8.5	
Other Welfare Foods	7.4	
	471.4	

[Source : Hansard, H/C, 24th September, 1948, Col. 209.]

The average level of food consumption attained in Britain in 1947-8 is shown in the next table :—

FOOD CONSUMPTION IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

	Pre-war Annual Average	Year 1947	1947-8 1st July to 30th June
(lb. per head per annum)			
Dairy products (milk solids)	38.3	49.0	48.1
Meat (edible weight)	109.6	82.7	75.4
Fish, game, poultry (edible weight) ..	32.8	36.3	37.5
Eggs and egg products (shell egg equiv.) ..	24.5	21.1	21.2
Oils and fats (fat content)	45.3	33.9	35.3
Sugar and syrups (sugar content)	109.9	85.0	86.3
Potatoes	176.0	297.2	262.1
Pulses and nuts	9.6	7.7	6.0
Tomatoes and fruit (fresh equiv.)	141.5	131.1	137.6
Vegetables	107.4	114.2	111.8
Grain products	209.8	240.2	241.4
Beverages	14.7	15.1	14.0
(daily intake per head)			
Protein—animal (gm.)	42.7	43.1	41.0
vegetable (gm.)	37.2	43.2	41.9
total (gm.)	79.9	86.3	82.9
Fat (from all sources) (gm.)	130.2	105.9	104.6
Visible fat (butter, margarine, lard, etc., fat content) (gm.)	56.2	42.3	44.0
Total energy value (calories)	3,000	2,880	2,840

[Source : Cmd. 7344 and Ministry of Food.]

2. AGRICULTURE

(a) Long-Term Policy

Britain's new long-term policy for agriculture echoes on the national level that of the Food and Agricultural Organisation of the United Nations on the international level, for it also aims to develop and organise food production to provide diets on a health standard for the people and to stabilise agricultural prices at levels fair to producers and consumers alike.

The *Agriculture Act* designed to give legislative effect to the Government's long-term agricultural policy became law on 6th August, 1947. This policy, as stated in the Act, is to secure "a stable and efficient agriculture capable of producing such part of the nation's food as in the national interest it is desirable to produce in the United Kingdom, and of producing it at minimum prices consistently with proper remuneration and living conditions for farmers and workers in agriculture and an adequate return on capital invested."

In moving the second reading in the House of Commons on 27th January, 1947, the Minister of Agriculture, Mr. Tom Williams, speaking of the future of Britain's agriculture, said :—

"Planning must have regard to world economic conditions, to national economic policy, and to the technical progress made by agriculture itself . . . the soil and climate in this country are far better suited to produce some commodities than others, particularly livestock and livestock products . . . we are peculiarly fitted in this country to produce protective foods—meat, milk, eggs, vegetables and fruit. Our agricultural system must be well balanced, not only over the country as a whole, but on each individual farm. Recent experience has shown that the ley farming system with mixed farming based on alternate husbandry, is the most effective method of promoting efficient production, while at the same time maintaining the soil in good health.

" . . . As far as one can see ahead, there is still a large and unsatisfied demand for liquid milk and other livestock products. We certainly need appreciably more fresh vegetables and fruit than we had in pre-war days. With a rising standard of consumption in other parts of the world, I doubt if we can rely on importing the pre-war proportion of meat and livestock products. Therefore, we need more stock, which we had to sacrifice for grain during the war. We need more feeding-stuffs, both imported and home-grown, but we cannot plan too rigidly or too far ahead as recent experience has taught us.

" . . . The national slogan in agriculture as elsewhere has to be: 'full efficient production at home for as long as we can possibly foresee.'

" . . . While providing for stability, there must be sufficient flexibility to enable adjustments to be made to meet changing needs.

" . . . We shall rely upon advice and the price mechanism to steer production in the direction desired by national policy, subject to one exception—national emergency . . ."

"The Government's policy" as stated in the *Economic Survey for 1947* "both to save foreign exchange and for good farming, is to switch our production, as rapidly as the cereals position permits, from the production of crops for direct human consumption to the production of livestock and livestock products, especially pigs and poultry. . . .

"The world cereal shortage has delayed this policy. This year (1947) we must still have a large production of wheat, potatoes and sugar-beet, and the target acreages are similar to those of 1945."

The general objective, as stated by the Minister of Agriculture on 6th March, 1947, "will be to increase the output of livestock products to the maximum extent consistent with supplies of feeding-stuffs and breeding capacity on dietary, foreign exchange, and good farming grounds."

The Government's agricultural expansion programme, announced in August, 1947, and reaffirmed in the *Economic Survey for 1948*, aims at raising the net output of Britain's agriculture in 1951 about one-fifth, or about £100 millions, above its 1946-7 level, in terms of 1945-6 prices (home prices for final products and import prices for imported feeding-stuffs). This means a 50 per cent increase over pre-war (1936-9 average) production and a 15 per cent increase over the peak war-time output of 1943-4.

More than half the net increase of production is expected to be derived from livestock if the necessary supplies of feeding-stuffs are forthcoming. The objectives set for 1951-2, as percentages of pre-war (1936-9) output are, for milk, 123 ; for eggs, 152 ; for beef and veal, 110 ; for mutton and lamb, 77 ; and for pigmeat, 92.

It is important to note that the contribution which home agriculture makes to the nation's food supply and the pattern of British agriculture has been governed

to a large extent during the war-time emergency by the fact that growers are, for example, required to sell off the farm for human consumption all potatoes fit for that purpose and all millable wheat, barley and rye (with the exception of seed and a small fraction of tailings and waste not suitable for human food).

By prohibiting the use and disposal of all such produce for any other purpose, farmers, as a whole, were automatically prevented from producing as many animals and livestock products—particularly small livestock—as they might wish to do (or would otherwise have done in the light of economic considerations such as the stock/crop price ratio) and the individual farmer was—and still is—precluded to that extent from the full exercise of his judgment as regards the best or most profitable system of farm management to pursue on his particular holding. The powers of the Minister of Agriculture to direct production are being retained during the continuance of the emergency (up to 1950 at least), and it is also contemplated that the complementary powers of the Minister of Food in regard to the compulsory disposal of certain products by farmers will likewise continue, with perhaps a progressive relaxation in respect of the proportion of any particular product which the producer is free to retain for use on the farm.

The long-term policy embodied in the *Agriculture Act*, however, contemplates the abandonment of compulsory directions on farmers as to production and disposal and places reliance on the price mechanism to ensure, by the fine adjustment of price ratios and costs, that home agriculture is not only capable of producing but will in fact provide broadly such part of the food supply as may be desired in the national interest.

(b) The Agriculture Act, 1947

Part I of the *Agriculture Act*, 1947, applies to the whole of the United Kingdom. Further clauses cover Great Britain (those dealing with statistics, the Land Fertility Scheme and contract services).

The *Agriculture (Scotland) Act*, 1948, which received the Royal Assent on 13th July, 1948, is the Scottish counterpart of the remainder of the *Agriculture Act* which applies only to England and Wales.

Part I of the *Agriculture Act* provides for the promotion and maintenance of a stable and efficient agricultural industry through the provision of guaranteed prices and assured markets for growers and producers. It provides for annual reviews of the general economic condition of the agricultural industry as a basis for the fixing of prices, and also provides for special reviews between the annual reviews where there has been a substantial change in the economic position of the industry. It provides for the fixing of prices well in advance so as to enable farmers to plan ahead, and also deals with the fixing of minimum prices and minimum quantities to which those prices relate for livestock and livestock products for from two to four years in advance.

Part II enacts the control measures necessary to ensure that all owners of agricultural land attain a reasonable standard of good estate management and that all farmers attain a reasonable standard of good husbandry.

Where an owner or occupier of agricultural land is not complying with his responsibilities under the rules of good estate management or the rules of good husbandry respectively, the Minister will have power to place him under supervision. Where an owner or occupier has been placed under supervision the Minister may serve on him any directions necessary to make him fulfil his responsibility to manage or farm the land in accordance with the rules of good estate management or good husbandry. No appeals are allowed against supervision orders or (subject to the exception mentioned later) against directions, though the persons concerned will be given an opportunity of appearing before the County Agricultural Executive Committee and making representations. In the case of directions on owners for the

provision of fixed equipment, however, an appeal may be made to the Agricultural Land Tribunal, where the estimated reasonable cost of the work is greater than the annual value of the land. The reason for this concession is that the provision of fixed equipment is likely to be one of the most expensive matters which can be required by a direction.

Where an owner or occupier has been placed under supervision and fails, after twelve months, to show satisfactory improvement in his standard of management or husbandry, the Minister is given powers to dispossess him. In the case of an owner, dispossession will be by means of the compulsory purchase of his land, while in the case of the occupier it will be by means of termination of his tenancy. In both cases provision is made for an appeal to the Agricultural Land Tribunal. Where satisfactory arrangements cannot be made for the farming of the land after an occupier has been dispossessed, the Minister may take possession of the land and either farm it himself or let it to a satisfactory tenant. The Minister will remain in possession until the owner can satisfy him that satisfactory alternative arrangements have been made.

Part III deals with the general relationship of landlord and tenant so as to bring the law into line with the new policy and to enable both the landlord and the tenant to fulfil their responsibilities under the rules of good estate management and good husbandry. (A consolidating act, the *Agricultural Holdings Act, 1948*, has since replaced this Part of the 1947 Act without altering its provisions.)

A comprehensive code of compensation from a landlord to a tenant for improvements carried out by him during the period of his tenancy and for compensation from a tenant to a landlord for any deterioration of the holding during the period of the tenancy is laid down. A code of this kind is essential if landlords and tenants are to be encouraged to fulfil their responsibilities for good estate management and good husbandry. The items for which a tenant has a statutory right to claim compensation can be divided broadly into three classes: (1) long-term improvements, (2) medium-term improvements, and (3) tenant right matters.

The Act confers for the first time on a landlord a statutory right to claim compensation from an outgoing tenant for any damage or deterioration caused to the holding through the tenant failing to comply with his responsibilities to farm in accordance with the rules of good husbandry.

The Act also makes provision for security of tenure for a tenant farmer and deals also with the compensation for disturbance which a tenant shall receive from the landlord when he quits the holding as a result of a valid notice to quit.

To ensure that rents of agricultural holdings are adjusted in accordance with the economic circumstances of the industry either the landlord or the tenant may get the rent of a holding varied by arbitration. In addition, a landlord may obtain an increased rent from his tenant where he has carried out an improvement which has increased the value of the holding.

Part IV of the Act implements the new smallholdings policy which is designed to provide a ladder for agricultural workers to rise to the rank of tenant farmer. Administration of smallholdings will continue to be carried out by County Councils and County Borough Councils who will have a duty to provide smallholdings having regard to the demand from suitable persons and the general interest of agriculture, and subject to the Minister's approval. It is an essential feature of the policy that holdings should be such that they are likely to provide a reasonable livelihood for the tenant and his family.

Smallholdings authorities are empowered to carry out co-operative schemes for the benefit of their smallholdings, and they are required to let smallholdings to people with adequate previous agricultural experience and to give preference, other things being equal, to agricultural workers. In order to make sure that

promising and young agricultural workers are not debarred from taking smallholdings owing to inadequate working capital, the Minister is empowered to make loans for this purpose. The Minister is enabled to make contributions up to 75 per cent of the loss incurred by County Councils and County Borough Councils in providing smallholdings.

It is proposed that the Minister should take over the existing smallholdings estates of the Land Settlement Association and the Welsh Land Settlement Society in return for remitting their present debt to the Government, and that they should in future run these estates as agents for the Minister.

Part V of the Act deals with the setting up of the administrative organisation for carrying out the general policy ; for the collection of agricultural statistics for the planning of the agricultural industry ; for general powers of acquisition and management of agricultural land by the Minister ; for the service of special directions to all farmers in an emergency ; for the continuation of grants for drainage, water supply and lime ; and for the control of pests and weeds.

The Act also deals, among other things, with the setting up of an Agricultural Land Commission and a Welsh Sub-Commission to manage land vested in the Minister and the constitution of County Agricultural Executive Committees and Agricultural Land Tribunals.

(c) Farming in the United Kingdom

Although the major part of the population lives and works in urban areas, agriculture remains one of Britain's biggest industries. It utilises some 48 million of the 60 million acres of land in the United Kingdom and provides employment for about a million and a quarter people.

USE OF AGRICULTURAL LAND IN THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1936-48

(Million acres)

June	Land under the plough			Permanent grassland	Total area under crops and grass
	Crops and fallow	Temporary grassland	Total		
1936-8 average	9.0	4.1	13.1	18.7	31.8
1939	8.8	4.1	12.9	18.8	31.7
1943	14.5	4.2	18.7	12.4	31.1
1944	14.5	4.7	19.3	11.7	31.0
1945	13.8	5.3	19.2	11.8	31.0
1946	13.3	5.7	19.0	12.0	31.0
1947	12.9	5.7	18.5	12.4	31.0*
1948	13.2	5.5	18.8	12.4	31.1
% change					
1936/8-44	+61	+15	+47	-37	-3
1936/8-48	+47	+34	+44	-34	-2

*Includes 87,000 acres temporarily out of use through flooding.

ACREAGE UNDER CORN IN THE UNITED KINGDOM 1936-48

(Million acres)

June	Wheat	Barley	Oats	Mixed Corn and Rye	All Cereals
1936-38 average	1.9	0.9	2.4	0.1	5.3
1939	1.8	1.0	2.4	0.1	5.3
1943	3.5	1.8	3.7	0.6	9.6
1944	3.2	2.0	3.7	0.5	9.4
1945	2.3	2.2	3.8	0.5	8.8
1946	2.1	2.2	3.6	0.5	8.4
1947	2.2	2.1	3.3	0.5	8.1
1948	2.3	2.1	3.4	0.7	8.4
% increase 1936/8-44	68	122	54	400	77
1936/8-48	21	133	42	600	58

[Source : Agricultural Departments.]

UNITED KINGDOM ACREAGE TARGETS FOR 1948

Crop	Actual 1947	Target 1948	Actual 1948 (Provisional Figs.)
Bread Grains ..	2,199,000	2,595,000	2,343,300
Other Grains.. ..	5,866,000	6,050,000	6,051,600
Potatoes	1,330,000	1,423,000	1,548,300
Sugar Beet	395,000	400,000	413,400
Linseed	38,000	150,000	86,000

[Source : Agricultural Departments.]

Production

The value of the gross output of agriculture in the United Kingdom before the war was some £280 million per annum. During the war the value of the net agricultural output at constant prices increased by one-third over the pre-war level.

(i) *Crops* : In 1947 home production provided 22 per cent of the wheat and flour and 26 per cent of the sugar consumed in the United Kingdom, compared with about 12 per cent and under 12 per cent respectively before the war.

**PRODUCTION OF PRINCIPAL AGRICULTURAL CROPS IN THE
UNITED KINGDOM**

(Thousand Tons) (June-May Years)

Product	Average 1936-9	Actual 1946-7	Actual 1947-8	Programmes			
				1948-9*	1949-50	1950-1	1951-2
Bread Grains	1,661	2,006	1,689	2,484	2,289	2,467	2,694
Other Grains	2,781	5,216	4,513	5,190	5,322	5,453	5,543
Potatoes	4,873	10,166	7,760	9,961	9,800	9,100	7,700
Sugar Beet (roots)	2,741	4,522	2,959	3,600	3,600	3,600	3,600

[Source : Ministry of Agriculture]

(ii) *Milk* : The quantity of milk produced in the United Kingdom in the year June, 1947, to May, 1948, amounted to 1,706 million gallons, exceeding the previous year's total by 39 million gallons. The trend towards winter milk production continues. The average yield per cow in 1947-8 has risen by 8 per cent above the three-year period 1942-5. The demand for milk still greatly exceeds the available supply for the greater part of the year. The quantities sold through the National Milk Scheme and the Milk in Schools Scheme continue to increase, and are now responsible for nearly 20 per cent of the total liquid sales.

(iii) *Livestock* : The livestock population of the United Kingdom in June, 1948, numbered 9·8 million cattle, 18·2 million sheep, 2·1 million pigs, and 85·2 million poultry. Dairy cattle had increased by 14 per cent between 1939 and 1946, and other cattle by 5 per cent, but sheep had fallen by 24 per cent, pigs by 55 per cent, and poultry on agricultural holdings by 9 per cent. The exceptionally severe winter of 1946-7 caused a further loss of over 2 million—about one-eighth of all—sheep and lambs, besides some 50,000 head of cattle. The year 1947-8, however, has seen an increase of 277,000 (16 per cent) in the number of calves under one year old, and increases of 9 per cent in the number of sheep, of pigs 32 per cent, and of poultry 21 per cent.

From 1948-9 onwards there should be a marked increase in the output of eggs and pigmeat, but revival of beef and mutton production must necessarily be somewhat slower while flocks and herds are being rebuilt. Home-killed supplies of meat in 1947 averaging 13,800 tons a week contributed 42 per cent of the total supply of carcass meat for consumption in the United Kingdom. Beef output in 1947-8 is expected to exceed pre-war by 19 per cent.

Financial aid, prices and markets

(i) *Financial aid* : The degree of financial aid given to British farmers can only be understood in the light of the activities of the Ministry of Food, which buys the greater part of the output of British farmers either directly or through authorised agents, and which through various channels resells it to consumers. The prices charged to consumers are fixed in such a way as to implement the Government's policy of holding the cost of living steady at a comparatively low figure. These objectives are reconciled through the Ministry of Food's Trading Account, which buys food at one array of prices and resells at another and,

*First estimates of actual production in 1948 grain harvest, bread grains 2,272,000 tons, other grains 5,396,000 tons; potatoes, 12,083,000 tons; sugar beet, 4,119,000 tons.

in the main, lower array of prices. The loss on the Ministry of Food's Trading Account in respect of home produce approaches £200 million per annum, but this figure includes losses in respect of food welfare schemes such as milk in schools. Not the whole of the loss, even excluding welfare schemes, can be regarded as financial aid to British farmers, since consumers are obtaining their supplies at less than a reasonable estimate of cost.

In addition to losses on the Ministry of Food's Trading Account, a certain number of agricultural improvements subsidies are administered by the Agricultural Departments. These include a grant of £4 per acre on certain classes of grassland ploughed up, subsidies on hill sheep and hill cattle, grants up to 50 per cent towards the cost of field drainage and ditching schemes and farm water supplies, 50 per cent for the rehabilitation of hill farming land, and livestock improvement subsidies. Agricultural lime is also supplied at half cost, and other classes of fertilisers are subject to a price stabilisation policy, with the resulting losses borne on the accounts of the Board of Trade.

The Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries also operates a *Goods and Services Scheme* whereby County Committees maintain gangs of agricultural labour for hire to farmers and maintain stocks of agricultural machinery, and are thus able to provide a wide range of services covering ploughing, cultivating, threshing and numerous others. The Committees are also able to supply goods on credit.

(ii) *Prices and Markets* : The four aims of price control are (a) to give the farmers a reasonable return ; (b) to encourage production of crops required by the Government ; (c) to ensure the availability of a product at the time of year when it is especially needed (e.g. winter milk); and (d) to discourage wasteful forms of production (e.g. special fattened livestock). There are guaranteed prices and markets for all important farm products on the basis of adequate returns. These are fixed by the Government for each season, in some cases for longer periods, and the farmers are guaranteed an assured market. All fat stock and some farm crops, including potatoes, are bought by the Ministry of Food or its authorised buyers.

Milk is marketed through the Milk Marketing Board for the Ministry of Food.

Manpower

The number of workers employed in agriculture in the United Kingdom at June, 1948, on holdings of more than one acre in Great Britain or a quarter of an acre in Northern Ireland, excluding the occupier and his wife but including the Women's Land Army and prisoners of war, was 929,000.

The *Economic Survey for 1948* (Cmd. 7344) assesses the probable manpower requirements for the Agricultural Programme at 1,110,000 workers in 1948 (mid and end). In mid-1947 the labour force comprised 1,045,000 civilian workers (including some 6,000 foreign workers but excluding some 60,000 prisoners of war regarded as the equivalent of regular workers). In 1948, 22,000 ex-prisoners are being retained under civilian contract. With these, together with some 35,000 other foreign workers—Poles and European Voluntary Workers—and an increased number of British agricultural workers, it is hoped to get the greater part of the way towards the 1948 target.

The *Women's Land Army* is to continue in being for the next few years. Its strength in Great Britain in July, 1948, was 25,149.

Mechanisation

The best prospect of satisfying the industry's manpower problems, in view of the overall shortage of manpower, lies in the further increase of output per man-year. Mechanisation has been the most important cause of the substantial increase

in the productivity of labour on the land in recent years—output per man-year is estimated to have risen during the war by 10 to 15 per cent.

Britain is one of the most highly mechanised countries in the world in proportion to agricultural acreage. About three times more machinery was supplied to farms in Britain in 1946 than before the war. The agricultural programme provides for the supply to the home market of agricultural machinery to the value of more than £40 million per annum in 1947-8 and until at least 1950-1. Most of this supply will be home-produced, as is already over five-sixths of Britain's agricultural machinery.

Development is stimulated by the testing, research and advisory work carried out by the *Agricultural Machinery Development Board* and the *National Institute of Agricultural Engineering* (Beds.) established in 1942. Dairy engineering, testing and investigational work is a responsibility of the *National Institute for Research in Dairying*. In 1948 there were about 272,180 tractors on farms in the United Kingdom besides many other modern agricultural machines.

Veterinary Care

All dairy herds are subject to official veterinary inspection at least once a year ; many herds are inspected more frequently. Two hundred and six thousand herd inspections were carried out during the twelve months ended 30th June, 1948.

The diseases mainly responsible for losses in dairy herds are being dealt with by three voluntary schemes.

Tuberculosis is at present being attacked by the establishment of tubercle-free herds under the *Tuberculosis (Attested Herds) Scheme*, 1938. All herds which have passed two consecutive tuberculin tests without a reactor are eligible for an official test under the scheme. If the herd passes this test, its owner is granted a Certificate of Attestation on condition that he observes certain rules designed to prevent reinfection of the herd from outside sources. The herd then receives official periodic tests (normally once a year) to ensure that freedom from tuberculosis is maintained. The great majority of attested herds are dairy herds.

At the end of June, 1948, there were 11,271 attested herds in England, 11,832 in Wales, and 10,642 in Scotland ; the number of cattle in attested herds was over 1½ million (England 590,788, Wales 242,028, Scotland 501,903). During the first half of 1948 an average of 550 new herds became attested each month.

A tentative plan for the eradication of tuberculosis on an area basis is now under discussion with farming interests.

Contagious Abortion can be controlled by vaccination, and under the *Calfhood Vaccination Scheme* heifer calves in dairy herds and attested herds can be vaccinated at the very low charge to the farmer of one shilling per calf. Two hundred and seventy-four thousand calves were vaccinated during the twelve months ended 30th June, 1948.

The Scheme for the Control of Disease of Dairy Cattle enables a farmer, on payment of a flat rate fee, to obtain advice and treatment from his veterinary surgeon for *mastitis*, *contagious abortion*, *sterility* and *Johne's disease*. The State provides, for herds in the scheme, a free laboratory service for diagnosis, and free or inexpensive materials for treatment.

There are 2,400 farmers participating in the scheme, while many others are following the measures of control advocated in it.

(d) England and Wales

The types of farming carried on in England and Wales vary widely with the differences of soil and climate, from the arable farming of the fertile plains of East Anglia and Lancashire to the grāzing and dairying on the Midland pastures and the hill-sheep farming of Wales and the North of England. The Land

Utilization Survey carried out between 1931 and 1938 distinguished no fewer than seventeen main types of farming in different areas of England and Wales. Dairying predominates, for it is at least of substantial importance on nearly half the farms and over nearly half the cultivated area.

The 24·2 million acres of land in England and Wales that is cultivated under crops or grass in holdings of upwards of five acres of crops and grass are divided among 290,600 separate holdings.* Nearly three-quarters of these holdings, covering 30 per cent of the total area, are under 100 acres in extent of crops and grass, while just over one-quarter are over 100 acres and together account for 70 per cent of the total area of crops and grass.

Administration : Agricultural policy is carried out under the Minister through County Agricultural Executive Committees appointed by the Minister which include representatives of landowners, farmers and farm workers. An official of the Ministry links each Committee with Headquarters. The Committees are represented in areas within the county by District Committees. The Committees were re-formed in 1948 and are made a permanent institution by the *Agriculture Act*.

Manpower : The total number of agricultural workers in England and Wales in June, 1948, is provisionally put at :—

(000)			(000)		
Regular, male ..	506·2	The comparable figures for June, 1939, were :	Regular male ..	..	471
„ female ..	57·2		„ female ..	..	40
Casual, male ..	98·7		Casual, male ..	..	63
„ female ..	50·3		„ female ..	..	33
Women's Land					
Army ..	16·5				
Prisoners of War..	11·4				
Total ..	740·4		Total ..	..	607

Voluntary Effort : Volunteer Agricultural Camps for adults provided a record total of over 102,000 weeks work on the land in 1947, and School and other Junior Camps another 42,763 weeks work. A further record is being established in 1948.

Agencies set up by the Ministry of Agriculture and numerous non-official organisations assist the public in the cultivation of small holdings.

Wages : The national minimum agricultural wage in England and Wales was raised in August, 1947, to 90s. per week of 48 hours for men and to 68s. for women. Progressive increases have raised the wage level for men 157 per cent above the average minimum wage paid in 1939.

Mechanisation : Tractors in use in January, 1948, numbered 231,280, compared with 179,850 in 1946, and tractor ploughs numbered 250,070. Combined harvester-threshers numbered 4,970 in January, 1948, compared with 3,250 in 1946.

Land Reclamation and Preservation

(i) *Drainage and Reclamation* : The estimated cost of land drainage schemes approved for State-aid up to 30th June, 1948, was as follows :—

Farm Drainage (since 1940)—£13½ millions.

Main Arterial Drainage (since 1937)—over £9 millions.

Main Rivers (since 1930)—nearly £20 millions.

During the year ended 30th June, 1948, the value of schemes approved was as follows :—

Farm drainage—nearly £2½ millions.

Main Arterial Drainage—over £1½ millions.

Main Rivers—nearly £2½ millions.

**i.e.*, parcels of land in individual occupation and "farmed" as single units. In many cases these holdings are made up of two or more parcels of land for which separate agricultural returns are made.

The *Agriculture Act* will further enable the State to take over and to apply capital directly to land likely otherwise to be left to yield less than its full potential for lack of the capital necessary for major works of drainage or reclamation.

(ii) The *Agricultural Land Service* has been formed (1948) for work in connection with the acquisition and management of agricultural land ; advice on estate management ; measures to ensure good estate management and good husbandry ; advice on the agricultural aspects of town and country planning and on the release of agricultural land for non-agricultural development, including afforestation ; the provision and management of smallholdings by smallholdings authorities ; the provision of allotments by local authorities, and other duties including schemes for farm water supplies and field drainage.

Quality Milk Schemes and National Milk Records

Quality Milk Schemes are in operation in England and Wales as follows :—

(a) Herds producing *Tuberculin Tested Milk* in accordance with the Milk (Special Designations) Regulations are subjected to a periodical test for tuberculosis, and animals reacting to the test must immediately be removed. These herds must also undergo a general veterinary inspection twice a year, and animals showing any signs of disease which may affect the milk injuriously must immediately be segregated from the rest of the herd, or removed, as the case may require.

(b) Herds producing *accredited milk* in accordance with the same regulations are subject to a similar veterinary inspection once every three months, but do not have to undergo a test for tuberculosis.

Licences to use these Special Designations are issued by Local Authorities (County and County Borough Councils), but under the *Food and Drugs (Milk and Dairies) Act, 1944*, the Ministry of Agriculture will shortly become the licensing authority. The conditions of both types of licence require the producer to satisfy the Local Authority as to his arrangements for producing milk, including the structure and cleanliness of buildings, cleanliness of milking arrangements and sterilisation of utensils ; and as to the cleanliness of his milk as judged by the results of laboratory tests.

The encouragement to farmers to participate in the Quality Milk Schemes is provided by the premiums payable. These are 1d. per gallon on all milk sold from attested herds, and for "Accredited" and "T.T." 1½d. and 4d. per gallon respectively (slightly different rates for milk sold direct to consumers by farmers).

The following figures show the increase in the total number of herds in receipt of quality premiums :—

	1st June, 1939	1st June, 1948
Accredited only	23,847	20,203
Accredited and Attested	834	971
Tuberculin Tested	2,034	5,617
Tuberculin Tested and Attested	1,738	10,119
Attested only	1,882	8,643
	30,335	45,553

National Milk Records : Over 20,000 farmers take part in the National Milk Records Scheme organised by the Milk Marketing Board with financial aid from the Ministry of Agriculture. Fees charged to members cover the larger part of the cost. In June, 1948, 20 per cent of all cows in milk-selling herds in England and Wales were recorded.

Scientific Research and Guidance

(i) *Organisations* : The *Agricultural Research Council* is the State Department responsible for fundamental research. In June, 1941, the *Agricultural Improvement*

Council was set up for the application of scientific investigation to farming practice, and in July, 1944, it was established on a more permanent basis.

A *National Agricultural Advisory Service* was set up on 1st October, 1946, under the *Agriculture (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act*, July, 1944.

The new Service is co-ordinated and directed from headquarters. Advice on agricultural economics continues to be provided by staffs attached to universities and colleges, and veterinary investigation officers come under the veterinary service of the Ministry. Apart from this, the national service includes all those concerned with advisory work to farmers at the Provincial Centres and in the counties. This will facilitate general direction and guidance, stimulation of activity, securing or greater uniformity in the work, and co-ordination of specialist and general advisory activities. The work of the W.A.E.C.s and the Advisory Service will be closely integrated with a view to the maximum efficiency of the industry.

The Poultry Advisory Service previously established (which covers other small livestock as well as poultry) has been absorbed into the new Service.

A programme of experimental work is being drawn up under the guidance of the Agricultural Improvement Council for England and Wales, and steps are being taken to set up a series of experimental farms and horticultural stations throughout the country.

The Ministry's livestock improvement policy is aided by an advisory *Livestock Improvement Committee*, while the *Horticultural Liaison Group* brings together horticulturists and representatives of the Ministry to discuss problems of horticultural production. The *Small Pig Keepers' Council* and the *Domestic Poultry Keepers' Council*, also promoted by the Ministry, encourage domestic pig and poultry keepers respectively, especially in the use of edible waste for feeding.

(ii) *Artificial Insemination*. A Central Advisory Committee on Artificial Insemination guides the development of artificial insemination of cattle. An increasing number of grant-aided centres are operating under the Milk Marketing Board and other organisations. The Ministry maintains two research centres with sub-centres.

(iii) *A National Farm Survey of England and Wales* was carried out in 1941-3 to collect information of all kinds from every farm of five acres and over. The results are summarised in a report published in August, 1946 (H.M.S.O., 2s.).

(iv) *Fertilisers* : The bulk of nitrogenous fertilisers is home produced and suffices for most farmers' needs. Raw materials for phosphatic fertilisers are largely imported, while potassic fertilisers are almost exclusively of foreign origin.

(v) *Seeds* : The National Institute of Agricultural Botany has established a special committee to organise and co-ordinate the home growing of seeds.

(e) Scotland

Farming is Scotland's largest single industry, employing some 88,000 regular workers, besides nearly 40,000 farmers, including smallholders.

There are three main branches of agriculture in Scotland, dependent upon the distinct character of three areas. These are, broadly, arable farming with livestock rearing and fattening along the East and North-East Coast ; dairying in the South-West ; and in the Highlands and Islands hill sheep and cattle farming and " crofting " —the cultivation of hereditary family smallholdings.

Acreage and Crops : Of Scotland's 19 million acres only about 4½ million are tillable ; of the rest 11 million acres are rough hill grazings, while a good part of the remainder is mountain land capable of supporting little but deer and game. Scottish acreages under crops increased by 28 per cent between 1939 and 1948, from 1.48 million acres to 1.90 million acres, and in 1948 approximately 42 per cent of the total crops and grass area was under crops.

The chief crop is oats, to which nearly a million acres were sown in 1948. Root crops for stock feeding cover the next largest acreage, and potatoes, especially seed

potatoes, and barley are important crops. For climatic reasons the area under wheat is small.

Administration is one of the responsibilities of the Secretary of State for Scotland, who controls food production through the Department of Agriculture. In November, 1947, the 41 war-time Agricultural Executive Committees were disbanded, and their powers and duties were transferred to 11 Agricultural Executive Committees set up earlier in that year in anticipation of the *Agriculture (Scotland) Act, 1948* (Royal Assent, 13th July, 1948). These Committees will take an active part in the implementation of the Government's post-war agricultural policy.

Mechanisation : In January, 1948, Scotland was using 29,900 tractors (over 6,000 more than in 1946) and 260 combined harvester-threshers (50 more than in 1946), besides increased numbers of many other types of agricultural machine.

Manpower : The total number of agricultural workers at June, 1948, was 108,000, including 1,300 members of the Women's Land Army, 89,900 other regular workers (74,100 male and 15,800 female), and 16,900 casual workers (10,800 male and 6,100 female).

(f) Northern Ireland

Farming is the largest single industry in Northern Ireland. The country is intensively cultivated in small farms, though there is a tendency for both fields and farms to become gradually fewer and larger. There are over 90,000 agricultural holdings of over one acre ; of these 77 per cent are farms of under 50 acres. Something like 79,000 of the holdings are family farms ; that is to say, all the varied work on the farm is done personally by the owner and members of his family.

Acreage, Crops and Produce : The total acreage under crops in 1948 was 1·1 million acres, an increase of nearly 22 per cent on 1939. The total of 3 million acres of agricultural land in Northern Ireland in 1948 included 2·3 million acres under crops and pasture.

The system of farming is rotational. The principal crops grown are potatoes, oats, flax, and ryegrass for seed. Normally something like 80 per cent of the total agricultural income is derived from livestock and livestock products.

Among other things Northern Ireland sent to Great Britain in 1947 :—

Eggs	300,787,560	£4,900,000
Poultry	11,629,223 lb.	£1,591,614
Fat Cattle and Sheep	161,433	£6,282,714
Seed Potatoes	145,000 tons	£1,479,000
Ware Potatoes	58,000 tons	£503,000
Ryegrass Seed	11,865 tons	£989,200
Apples (season ended April, 1947) ..	34,000 tons	£1,325,000

Before the 1939-45 war, the total yearly sales of milk off farms amounted to something like 40,000,000 gallons. Of this, 15,000,000, or only 37 per cent, were consumed as liquid milk. Today, production has jumped to 71,000,000 gallons per annum, with 40,000,000 gallons going for liquid consumption.

Administration in food production matters in Northern Ireland is carried out by the Northern Ireland Ministry of Agriculture under powers delegated by the Home Secretary. The Ministry also acts as agent for the Ministry of Food in the purchase and slaughter of all fat cattle, sheep and pigs and the supply to butchers of their rationed meat, and also buys on behalf of the Ministry of Food all eggs and milk, and controls the sale and processing of them.

Mechanisation : In January, 1948, there were approximately 11,000 tractors in use in Northern Ireland.

Manpower : The total number of persons employed in agriculture at June, 1948, was 168,413, including 59,582 owners of farms, 26,666 owners' wives engaged on farm work, 52,627 other members of farmers' families and 29,538 hired workers.

Of the workers other than owners or their wives, 52,627 were full-time and 20,838 part-time workers. Of all those engaged in agriculture, 113,503 were men or boys and 54,910 women or girls.

3. FORESTRY

"The Government consider that well-planned afforestation represents a sound national investment. . . ." (The Minister of Agriculture, 30th November, 1945).

The Forestry Commission was established under the *Forestry Acts, 1919-1947*, to promote the interests of forestry, the development of afforestation and the production and supply of timber in Great Britain.

Progress, 1919-39 : By 1939 the Commission had acquired an extensive Forest Estate covering, with the Crown woodlands, 1,144,000 acres of land of which 714,000 acres had been classified as plantable. 434,000 acres were under woodlands and plantations. Of these 369,000 acres had been planted (excluding replacements of less than 8,000 acres) and the rest had been acquired by purchase or by transfer from other Government Departments. In addition, there were 59,000 acres of agricultural land (16,000 acres in 1,471 forest workers' holdings and 43,000 acres in farms) and 1,000 acres under nurseries. Three National Parks had been established.

World War II : The Commission's war-time policy with regard to the forests committed to its charge was threefold : firstly, provision of timber according to national needs ; secondly, protection and maintenance of all plantations not likely to be felled ; and, finally, planting to the extent that labour and other limiting factors permitted.

Plans worked out before the war were put into operation immediately hostilities began. The Commission's organisation was divided into two main sections, the Timber Supply Department, working under the Timber Controller in the Ministry of Supply, and the Forest Management Department, dealing with the normal activities of the Commission. This arrangement continued until 1st February, 1941, when by Order in Council (Defence Regulation No. 67a) The Timber Supply Department was transferred to the Ministry of Supply.

The Commission was able to hand over to the Ministry's newly formed Timber Production Department a well-organised, vigorous and expanding undertaking. In the first 17 months of the war, employment in home timber production was roughly trebled and the rate of production increased roughly fivefold. The most striking increase was in the production of mining timber, which, relatively to sawn timber, requires less labour. Large orders were placed for sawing machinery, transport and plant generally, and considerable quantities had been delivered and were in operation by the end of the period. The Newfoundland Forest Unit was brought over at the end of 1939 and beginning of 1940, and set to work in stands of timber already acquired. After the fall of France a number of companies of Royal Engineers, British, Australian, and New Zealand, were brought to England, equipped for timber production and rapidly set to work. At the same time arrangements were made for large-scale assistance from Canada : a large number of companies of the Canadian Forestry Corps began work in Britain at the end of 1940. Much attention was also paid to the development of output by the home timber trade.

At the same time active attention was given to the provision of stocks of young trees for planting. In 1944 stocks of seedlings were about 225 millions, and of transplants, 76 millions. The nursery area was enlarged from 1,000 to 1,550 acres for these and to provide space for the large sowing programme.

Post-war Policy : Post-war policy, with its programme of extensive new afforestation, together with replanting, is based on the need to replenish reserves of standing timber as soon as possible. The main report of the Forestry Commissioners, Cmd. 6447, was published in June, 1943, and set forth a policy and 50-year

programme. It emphasised the importance of having a single Forest Authority. The supplementary report on *Private Woodlands*, Cmd. 6500, January, 1944, proposed the Dedication Scheme for private woodlands that has been subsequently put into operation.

Forestry Act, 1945. This Act received the Royal Assent on 15th June, 1945. Its main purpose was to prepare for the development of forestry by securing ministerial responsibility for forestry policy. Under the Act the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Secretary of State for Scotland became jointly responsible for forestry policy. The Forestry Commission was retained as a single executive body responsible directly to Ministers for carrying out all silvicultural operations, including the training of foresters, research and the management of forest holdings, and generally for giving advice on forestry policy.

Programme : The post-war programme is designed to secure an increase of Britain's forest area from three to five million acres of productive woodlands over a period of fifty years. The annual yield from these five million acres would be equal to about 35 per cent of the national timber requirement contrasted with 4 per cent before World War II. The Post-War Policy Report calculated that five million acres of forest would be required to ensure national safety and to provide a reasonable insurance against future stringency in world supplies. It was estimated that this total acreage of effective forest could be secured by the afforestation of three million acres of bare ground and the bringing into full production of an existing two million acres of woodlands, a big proportion of which is in private ownership. It is hoped that 1,100,000 acres will be planted in the first ten years of the post-war programme, 200,000 of them by private owners under the dedication scheme. During the first five forest years 1947-51, it is planned to afforest or replant about 365,000 acres in all.

Commission's Forest Area : The total area of land acquired through the Forestry Fund since the establishment of the Commission in 1919 was, by the end of September, 1947, 1,440,500 acres. The area included 880,500 acres of forest land planted or yet to be planted and 560,000 acres of other land (including forest nurseries, Forest Workers' Holdings, agricultural land, and unplatable and miscellaneous land). Of the forest land 361,000 acres are situated in England, 385,700 acres in Scotland and 133,800 acres in Wales. The total area of new plantations formed since the establishment of the Commission was by the same date 478,900 acres (England 211,100 acres, Scotland 182,400 acres, Wales 85,400 acres). In addition, a total of 55,200 acres of existing woodlands had been acquired. The number of forest units was 302. In the year 1945-6 34,081 acres of forest land were acquired and in the following year, 22,322 acres (in England 7,966 acres, Scotland 9,344 acres, and Wales 5,012 acres).

Dedication Scheme for Private Woodlands : The *Forestry Act, 1947*, an Act to provide for the dedication of land to forestry purposes in return for State assistance in the form of both advice and grants, received the Royal Assent on 27th March, 1947. Under the scheme as now operating a private owner undertakes that his woodlands will be devoted to timber production for all time and be managed in accordance with a plan agreed with the Forestry Commission. In return he may choose one of two forms of financial assistance : he may elect to receive 25 per cent of his net approved annual expenditure, or initial planting grants of £10 per acre planted or replanted, with maintenance grants of 3s. 4d. per acre per year for 15 years.

By the end of June, 1948, 917 private owners, who between them held 508,000 acres of woodlands, had intimated their willingness to consider dedication.

Planting Progress : The area planted during the year 1946-7 was 26,356 acres, more than two and a half times greater than that planted in the previous year

(10,448 acres) and, in spite of the most difficult winter on record, only 3,644 acres short of the target.

In England 8,891 acres were planted, in Scotland 12,351 acres, and in Wales 5,114 acres. The planted area included 8,900 acres replanted; this meant that the work of replanting woodlands felled during the war, or in the inter-war years, proceeded more quickly than was originally intended.

The year's planting operations involved the use of 54 million young trees, all of them grown from seed sown in the Forestry Commission's nurseries. The total area under nurseries at the end of September, 1947, was 1,850 acres, stocked with 338 million seedlings and 119 million transplants. Some 173 acres had been added during the year. In 1947-8, 36,385 acres have been planted.

Timber Production : The Commissioners' woodlands provide a great variety of produce, including saw timber, telegraph and transmission poles, pit props, posts and stakes and wood for pulping and wallboarding.

During the year 1946-7, 13,803 acres of plantation were thinned, an increase of nearly 3,000 acres over the previous year.

The year's income from all classes of forest produce was £436,111.

Owing in the main to difficulties in international trade, abnormal felling continues in the badly depleted woodlands. During the year 1946-7 licences for felling were issued by the Board of Trade in respect of 55 million cubic feet; an increase of $2\frac{1}{2}$ million cubic feet over the figure for the previous year. This heavy drain cannot be much longer sustained.

Planting Grants : The Commissioners assist planting by local authorities and private owners by means of grants pending full operation of the Dedication Scheme. During the year 1946-7 grants were made in respect of 7,600 acres, the total area planted with the aid of grants being 161,158 acres by the end of the year.

Of the total area planted with the aid of grants during the year, private owners were responsible for 3,659 acres, made up as follows : England 1,994 acres, Scotland 1,335 acres, and Wales 330 acres.

For the assistance of private estate forestry the Commissioners during the year made available to the nursery trade more than eight million transplants and seedlings, together with 2,800 lb. of conifer seed and 7,000 lb. of hardwood seed.

Finance : In April, 1946, the then Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Dalton, announced his intention to place £20 millions over the next five years at the service of the Forestry Commission. A sum of £2,750,000 was allotted to the Commission for the year 1946-7, £4,856,000 for 1947-8, and £5,000,000 for 1948-9.

Employment and Training : In December, 1945, it was announced that forestry was ready to absorb 5,000 skilled men immediately, and that many more would be needed. With the increase in the planting programme the number of full-time industrial workers in the Commission's forests progressively increased from 6,700 in October, 1946, to 10,500 in October, 1947, and 11,207 in September, 1948.

Since the end of the war the Forestry Commission has greatly increased facilities for the training of foremen and foresters, both for State and private forestry work.

The Report of the Royal Scottish and Royal English Forestry Societies on Forest Policy (1944) estimated that private forestry would probably absorb 100 men annually in due course and that immediate post-war requirements would necessitate 400 men being in training at any one time. With these requirements in mind the Forestry Commissioners have augmented the training facilities by reopening the Forester Training School at Parkend, Forest of Dean, and increasing the number of schools to five by opening new ones at Glentress, near Peebles, Scotland, Lynford Hall in Thetford Chase, Norfolk, and Gwdyr Forest in North Wales. The fifth school is at Benmore, Scotland.

Each of the new schools is planned for 60 students and, with Benmore and Dean Schools, they bring the total capacity up to 270. The first full post-war courses at these schools were completed by the end of August, 1948, and 146 men became available for work in State and private woodlands.

Men who leave the schools at the end of the first year's course normally receive a foreman's certificate, and are employed by the Forestry Commission for a probationary period as gangers. The majority spend two years at a school, and, after examination, pass out with a forester's certificate. Those completing the course in 1948 are nearly all ex-Service men and the present arrangement is that they will be graded as foremen for a probationary period.

The Forest Workers' Training Scheme provides practical instruction extending over one year for men released from National Service. Training is given in State forests and on private estates. 715 men were in training in September, 1948.

The Commission also arranges short courses for foresters and woodmen which are held on private estates in various parts of the country.

Research: Since the war the Forestry Commission Research Station has been established at Alice Holt Lodge, near Farnham, Surrey, in a State Forest of 2,000 acres. Alice Holt Lodge is a medium-sized manor house and has been adapted to provide laboratories, photographic section, library and offices. By the end of September, 1947, the following sections were installed and operating: Silviculture, Mensuration, Forest Pathology, Forest Entomology and Library.

The Research Station is the temporary headquarters of the Census of the whole of Britain's woodlands, which is being carried out by the Forestry Commission.

National Forest Parks

Since 1936 the Forestry Commissioners have brought into being six National Forest Parks, and their policy is to create others as opportunities arise. The Parks already formed vary considerably in extent and in the nature of the country they occupy, but the principle underlying the establishment of each is the same. This is, that where land is acquired for afforestation in regions of exceptional national beauty, it shall be made available for public access and enjoyment in so far as the requirements of timber production permit. The Parks established to date are: Scotland—Argyll, Glen Trool and Glen More; England—Forest of Dean and Hardknott (Cumberland); Wales—Snowdonia.

4. FISHERIES

Vigorous steps have been taken to increase home fish supplies. The progress made since the end of the war towards restoring Britain's fishing industry by the release of men and boats called up or requisitioned for war service and by the sweeping of minefields on fishing grounds is reflected in the catches landed. The figures of wet fish landed in 1946 and 1947 show that Scottish ports have now exceeded their 1938 level of production: in England and Wales in 1947, a much smaller fleet than in 1938 landed nearly 90 per cent of the pre-war total.

WET FISH LANDED IN GREAT BRITAIN
TABLE I
1947

England and Wales		Scotland		Great Britain	
Weight ('000 cwt.)	Value (£'000)	Weight ('000 cwt.)	Value (£'000)	Weight ('000 cwt.)	Value (£'000)
13,894	31,006	5,982	10,508	19,876	41,514

TABLE II

3,225	Three months, January-March, 1938				3,805
	2,932	1,030	873	4,255	
2,725	Three months, January-March, 1948				9,412
	7,134	1,199	2,278	3,924	

[Source : Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries.]

Even before the end of the war in Europe the Admiralty had released as many as could be spared of the requisitioned fishing vessels. At the end of the war releases were accelerated and high priority given to the reconversion of vessels for fishing. The trawler fleet which is responsible for the bulk of the landings of British-caught fish was thus increased from 465 vessels in May, 1945, to 750 by March, 1946, compared with nearly double this number before the war. By the end of 1947 the number of trawlers based on ports in England and Wales had risen to 832 and to 234 in Scotland. In addition, some 577 drifters and 450 seiners have contributed to the total production. British owners have already started on an extensive trawler building programme of vessels of modern design ; a total of 80 vessels is expected to be added to the fleet in the next four years.

The clearance of minefields has given fishing vessels greatly increased scope for operations in all areas. The greater part of the North Sea is now open to fishing with the exception of relatively narrow areas along its eastern edge.

An extensive area remains to be cleared between the Faroes and Iceland, but this does not interfere with fishing operations. All areas to the S.W. of Ireland and off the Butt of Lewis are now cleared. The East Anglian herring fleets are now able to function without restriction.

*The Inshore Fishing Industry Act**, passed on 10th December, 1945, gives financial encouragement to inshore fishermen similar to that already extended to fishermen in the herring industry by the *Herring Industry Act, 1944*.

The Inshore Fishing Industry Act empowers the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Secretary of State for Scotland to assist financially persons engaged in the inshore fishing industry or desiring to engage therein, in particular former inshore fishermen and ex-Servicemen.

Assistance may be given in connection with the acquisition of boats and equipment, or the improvement or reconditioning of such boats or equipment, and may be given by way of loan or, in the case of need, by grant, or partly by loan and partly by grant.

Fisheries Research : The Fisheries Departments have resumed their activities and are engaged on programmes of marine research which, among other things, deal with problems of the distant water fisheries in the Arctic Circle, over-fishing in the North Sea and related areas, pelagic fisheries for herrings, pilchards and sprats, investigation of oyster breeding and other shell fisheries, and work on salmon and freshwater fisheries.

*The Inshore fishing Industry means " the business of catching and landing in Great Britain fish, including shell fish, found in the sea, by means of fishing boats not exceeding 70 feet in length and not exceeding 50 tons gross tonnage."

An International Conference on Overfishing was held in 1946 and meetings of the Advisory Committee appointed by the Conference were held in London in 1947. Ratifications of the Convention drawn up as the result of the Conference have now been received from most of the participating countries.

The International Council for the Exploration of the Sea has resumed its work of drawing up agreed programmes of research for each of the contributing countries.

Whaling : With the resumption in 1946-7 by the British Whaling Companies of direct control over the Antarctic whaling fleet, which had been organised by the Government during the first post-war whaling season of 1945-6, the pre-war pattern of whaling re-emerged. The rebuilding of the Antarctic whaling fleet, which had suffered a total loss during the war, continued and in the 1946-7 season of the four British ships which participated, two had been completed immediately prior to the opening of the season, and a third had been built for the 1945-6 season. For the seasons 1946 to 1948 whaling was permitted by International Agreement for four months, instead of the pre-war three months, but the catch was limited to 16,000 blue whale units in the interests of the conservation of the whale stocks.

APPENDIX 1

POPULATION

1. ESTIMATED TOTAL POPULATION OF THE UNITED

KINGDOM at 30th JUNE, 1948 *

	<i>Total</i>		<i>Males</i>		<i>Females</i>
United Kingdom ..	50,033,000	..	24,260,000	..	25,773,000
England and Wales ..	43,502,000	..	21,091,000	..	22,411,000
Scotland	5,169,000	..	2,502,000	..	2,667,000
Northern Ireland ..	1,362,000	..	667,000	..	695,000

AGE GROUPS (Thousands)

AGE	UNITED KINGDOM		ENGLAND AND WALES		SCOTLAND		NORTHERN IRELAND	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
0- 4	2,180	2,078	1,872	1,780	236	228	72	70
5- 9	1,740	1,676	1,473	1,416	204	200	63	60
10-14	1,674	1,619	1,415	1,368	203	197	56	54
15-19	1,716	1,672	1,458	1,421	201	196	57	55
20-24	1,837	1,796	1,574	1,535	202	202	61	59
25-29	1,975	1,954	1,721	1,721	197	176	57	57
30-34	1,775	1,793	1,559	1,574	168	167	48	52
35-39	1,944	1,978	1,715	1,734	186	197	43	47
40-44	1,869	1,924	1,658	1,686	173	194	38	44
45-49	1,657	1,804	1,464	1,581	161	184	32	39
50-54	1,373	1,627	1,214	1,429	130	164	29	34
55-59	1,229	1,479	1,082	1,302	119	146	28	31
60-64	1,066	1,325	939	1,168	100	128	27	29
65-69	894	1,140	783	1,009	87	106	24	25
70 and over	1,331	1,910	1,164	1,687	134	182	33	41

*From 1940 onwards estimates for Northern Ireland are for civilians only, but those for England and Wales and Scotland refer to the total population, including members of the forces serving overseas and merchant seamen at sea. These categories are omitted from the 1939 figures, which relate to the estimated population actually in the country at that date : the number thus excluded is estimated at about a quarter of a million.

2. BIRTH AND DEATH RATES

Year	Birth Rate per 1,000 of Population			Death Rate per 1,000 of Population		
	England and Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland	England and Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland
1938	15.1	17.7	20.0	11.6	12.6	13.7
1939	14.9	17.4	19.5	12.1	12.9	13.5
1940	14.5	17.1	19.6	13.9	14.9	14.6
1941	14.1	17.5	20.9	12.8	14.7	15.2
1942	15.6	17.6	22.9	11.5	13.3	13.3
1943	16.2	18.4	24.2	11.9	14.0	13.4
1944	17.5	18.5	23.5	11.6	13.6	12.8
1945	16.1	16.9	22.0	11.4	13.2	12.3
1946	19.2*	20.3	22.6	11.5*	13.1	12.5
1947	20.6*	22.0	23.3	12.0*	12.9	12.6

*Provisional figures.

3. MARRIAGES REGISTERED IN THE UNITED KINGDOM (Thousands)

Year	UNITED KINGDOM	ENGLAND AND WALES	SCOTLAND	NORTHERN IRELAND
1935-8*	403.3	356.3	38.2	8.8
1943	344.8	296.4	38.2	10.2
1944	349.2	302.7	37.0	9.5
1945	456.7	397.6	48.6	10.4
1946	441.1	385.6	45.9	9.7
1947	453.8	399.9	44.4	9.5

*Averages for 4 years.

[Source : Registrars-General.]

APPENDIX 2

HIS MAJESTY'S GOVERNMENT

November, 1948

MEMBERS OF THE CABINET

Prime Minister and First Lord of the Treasury

Rt. Hon. CLEMENT RICHARD ATTLEE, C.H., M.P.

Lord President of the Council and Leader of the House of Commons

Rt. Hon. HERBERT STANLEY MORRISON, M.P.

Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs

Rt. Hon. ERNEST BEVIN, M.P.

Chancellor of the Exchequer

Rt. Hon. Sir STAFFORD CRIPPS, K.C., M.P.

Minister of Defence

Rt. Hon. ALBERT VICTOR ALEXANDER, C.H., M.P.

Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster

Rt. Hon. HUGH DALTON, M.P.

Lord Privy Seal and Paymaster-General and Leader of the House of Lords

Rt. Hon. Viscount ADDISON, K.G.

Lord Chancellor

Rt. Hon. Viscount JOWITT

Secretary of State for the Home Department

Rt. Hon. JAMES CHUTER EDE, M.P.

Secretary of State for the Colonies

Rt. Hon. ARTHUR CREECH JONES, M.P.

Secretary of State for Commonwealth Relations

Rt. Hon. PHILIP JOHN NOEL-BAKER, M.P.

Secretary of State for Scotland

Rt. Hon. ARTHUR WOODBURN, M.P.

Minister of Labour and National Service

Rt. Hon. GEORGE ALFRED ISAACS, M.P.

Minister of Health

Rt. Hon. ANEURIN BEVAN, M.P.

Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries

Rt. Hon. THOMAS WILLIAMS, M.P.

Minister of Education

Rt. Hon. GEORGE TOMLINSON, M.P.

President of the Board of Trade

Rt. Hon. JAMES HAROLD WILSON, O.B.E., M.P.

MINISTERS NOT IN THE CABINET

First Lord of the *Admiralty*—Rt. Hon. Viscount HALL

Secretary of State for *War*—Rt. Hon. EMANUEL SHINWELL, M.P.

Secretary of State for *Air*—Rt. Hon. ARTHUR HENDERSON, K.C., M.P.

Minister of *Transport*—Rt. Hon. ALFRED BARNES, M.P.

Minister of *Food*—Rt. Hon. JOHN STRACHEY, M.P.

Minister of *Town and Country Planning*—Rt. Hon. LEWIS SILKIN, M.P.

Minister of *National Insurance*—Rt. Hon. JAMES GRIFFITHS, M.P.

Minister of *Supply*—Rt. Hon. GEORGE RUSSELL STRAUSS, M.P.

Minister of *Fuel and Power*—Rt. Hon. HUGH TODD NAYLOR GAITSKELL,
C.B.E., M.P.

Minister of *Civil Aviation*—Rt. Hon. Lord PAKENHAM

Postmaster-General—Rt. Hon. WILFRED PALING, M.P.

Minister of *Works*—Rt. Hon. CHARLES WILLIAM KEY, M.P.

Minister of State for *Colonial Affairs*—Rt. Hon. the Earl of LISTOWEL

Minister of State—Rt. Hon. HECTOR McNEIL, M.P.

Minister of *Pensions*—HILARY ADAIR MARQUAND, Esq., M.P.

APPENDIX 3

ADDRESSES OF ORGANISATIONS MENTIONED IN THE TEXT

Air Training Corps, Air Ministry, Adastral House, Kingsway, London, W.C.2.
Army Cadet Force, The War Office, 4, Whitehall Court, London, S.W.1.
Aylesbury After-Care Association, 66, Eccleston Square Mews, London, S.W.1.
B.E.A.C., Dorland Hall, Lower Regent Street, London, S.W.1.
B.O.A.C., Airways Terminal, Victoria, London, S.W.1.
Borstal Association, 19, Chester Square, London, S.W.1.
Boy Scouts Association, 25, Buckingham Palace Road, London, S.W.1.
British Broadcasting Corporation, Broadcasting House, Portland Place, London, W.1
British Electricity Authority, British Electricity House, Great Portland Street, London, W.1.
British Employers' Confederation, 21, Tothill Street, London, S.W.1.
British Federation of Social Workers, 5, Victoria Street, London, S.W.1.
British Gas Council, Gas Industry House, Grosvenor Place, London, S.W.1.
British Institute of Adult Education, 29, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.
British Iron & Steel Federation, Steel House, Tothill Street, London, S.W.1.
British Red Cross Society, 6, Cadogan Square, London, S.W.1.
British Transport Commission, 55, Broadway, London, S.W.1.
B.S.A.A.C., Starways House, King Street, St. James's, London, S.W.1.
Cable & Wireless, Electra House, Victoria Embankment, London, W.C.2.
Carnegie U.K. Trust, Comely Park House, Dunfermline, Fife, Scotland.
Central Association for the Aid of Discharged Convicts, 66, Eccleston Square, London, S.W.1.
Central Council for the Care of Cripples, 34, Eccleston Square, London, S.W.1.
Central Council for Health Education, Tavistock House, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.
Central Land Board, Devonshire House, Mayfair Place, London, W.1.
Disabled Persons' Employment Corporation, 25, Buckingham Street, London, S.W.1.
Family Welfare Association, 296, Vauxhall Bridge Road, London, S.W.1.
Finance Corporation for Industry Ltd., 3, Lombard Street, London, E.C.3.
Forestry Commission, 25, Savile Row, London, W.1.
General Post Office, St. Martin's-le-Grand, London, E.C.4.
Girl Guides Association, 17-19, Buckingham Palace Road, London, S.W.1.
Industrial and Commercial Finance Corporation, 7, Drapers Gardens, London, E.C.2.
Industrial Health Research Board, Keppel Street, London, W.C.1.
Industrial Welfare Society, 14, Hobart Place, London, S.W.1.
Joint University Council for Social Studies and Public Administration, 5, Victoria Street, London, S.W.1.
Lloyd's, Leadenhall Street, London, E.C.3.
London County Council, County Hall, London, S.E.1.
London Transport Executive, 55, Broadway, Westminster, London, S.W.1.
Marriage Guidance Council, 78, Duke Street, Manchester Square, London, W.1.
Medical Research Council, Keppel Street, London, W.C.1.

Merchant Navy Welfare Board, 9-19, Rupert Street, London, W.1.
 Metropolitan Water Board, 173, Rosebery Avenue, London, E.C.1.
 Milk Marketing Board, Giggs Hill Green, Thames Ditton, Surrey.
 Miners' Welfare Commission, Ashley Court, Ashted, Surrey.
 National Association for Mental Health, 39, Queen Anne Street, London, S.W.1.
 National Association of Boys' Clubs, 17, Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
 National Association of Girls' Clubs and Mixed Clubs, 30-32, Devonshire Street, London, W.1.
 National Association of Discharged Prisoners' Aid Societies, 66, Eccleston Square, London, S.W.1.
 National Association of Training Corps for Girls, Alfred House, 24, Cromwell Place, London, S.W.7.
 National Coal Board, Hobart House, Grosvenor Place, Victoria, London, S.W.1.
 National Corporation for the Care of Old People, 9, Mecklenburgh Square, London, W.C.1.
 National Council for Maternity and Child Welfare, 48, Queen's Gardens, London, W.2.
 National Council of Associated Children's Homes, 85, Highbury Park, London, N.5.
 National Council of Social Service, 26, Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
 National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs, 55, Gower Street, London, W.C.1.
 Northern Ireland Housing Trust, 5, Donegall Square, Belfast.
 Port of London Authority, P.L.A. House, Trinity Square, London, E.C.3.
 Railway Executive, 222, Marylebone Road, London, N.W.1.
 Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents, 52, Grosvenor Gardens, London, S.W.1.
 Scottish Special Housing Association, 15-21, Palmerston Place, Edinburgh 12.
 Sea Cadet Corps, 37, Gracechurch Street, London, E.C.3.
 Standing Conference of National Voluntary Youth Organisations, 26, Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
 Trades Union Congress, Transport House, Smith Square, London, S.W.1.
 Transport Commission, 55, Broadway, London, S.W.1.
 Women's Land Army, 6, Chesham Street, London, S.W.1.
 Women's Voluntary Services, 51, Tothill Street, London, S.W.1.
 Workers' Educational Association, 38A, St. George's Drive, London, S.W.1.
 Young Men's Christian Association, Great Russell Street, London, W.C.1.
 Youth Hostels Association, Midland Bank Chambers, Howardsgate, Welwyn Garden City, Herts.

APPENDIX 4

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Navy Estimates	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>Feb. 48</i>	<i>5/-</i>
Army Estimates	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>Feb. 48</i>	<i>3/-</i>
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Town and Country Planning

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Royal Commission on the Distribution of the Industrial Population (Barlow Report)	<i>Cmd. 6153 H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>Jan. 40</i>	<i>5/-</i>
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Final Report of the Expert Committee on Compensation and Betterment	<i>Cmd. 6386 H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>Sept. 42</i>	<i>2/6</i>
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Explanatory Memorandum to Town and Country Planning Bill	<i>Cmd. 7006 H.M.S.O.</i>	1947	6d.
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The Redevelopment of Central Areas, 1948	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1948	12/6
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Town and Country Planning in Britain	<i>C.O.I. R.1483</i>	<i>Sept. 47</i>	

Public Corporations and Nationalisation

British Experiments in Public Ownership and Control. T. H. O'Brien.	<i>Inst. of Public Administration</i>	1937	10/6
The Public Corporation in Great Britain. L. Gordon	<i>O.U.P.</i>	1938	16/-
Public Enterprise. W. A. Robson	<i>Allen and Unwin</i>	1937	12/6
The Public Corporations in British Experience. Address by Sir Arthur Street	<i>Inst. of Public Administration</i>	1947	
Public Corporations in Britain.	<i>C.O.I. R.829</i>	<i>Mar. 46</i>	
The Public Corporation and Nationalisation in Britain	<i>C.O.I. R.1658</i>	<i>June 48</i>	
Nationalisation in Britain : I.	<i>C.O.I. R.1391</i>	<i>May 47</i>	

II

Economic Position and Planning

Planning and the Price Mechanism. J. E. Meade	<i>Allen and Unwin</i>	1948	8/6
Central Planning and Control in War and Peace. Sir O. Franks	<i>Longmans Green</i>	1947	2/6

Government and Industry.	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	July 1948	9d.
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<i>Cmd. 6261 H.M.S.O.</i>	1941	3d.
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Annual Abstracts of Statistics (last issue No. 84, 1935-1946)

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Clothing Quiz

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Rations and Allowances in Great Britain

C.O.I. Monthly

Industry

Working Party Reports (official post-war reports on various industries)

H.M.S.O.

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<i>Cmd. 6610 H.M.S.O.</i>	Mar. 45	1/-
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Board (Report for 1947)

H.M.S.O. July 48 4/6

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Employment

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Miners Welfare in Wartime	<i>Miners Welfare Commission</i>	1947	1/6
Industrial Welfare, Study Group Pamphlet, No. 3	<i>British Council</i>	1947	Free
Ministry of Labour Gazette, monthly	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>		6d.
Factory Law. C. D. Rackham	<i>Nelson</i>	1938	3/6

III

Social Services

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Principles of Social Administration. T. S. Simey	<i>Oxford University Press</i>	1937	10/-
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The Development of Social Service in Great Britain, 1939-1946	<i>National Council of Social Service</i>	1946	Free
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Social Work, a quarterly review of family casework.

	<i>Family Welfare Association</i>		4/- <i>p.a.</i>
British Social Services, National Book League	<i>List No. 208</i>		
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Handbook on the Welfare of the Blind in England and Wales— Ministry of Health	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1939	1/-
Report on the Employment and Training of Social Workers. E. L. Younghusband	<i>Carnegie U.K. Trust</i>	1947	<i>Free</i>
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Voluntary Social Services, their place in the modern state. A. F. C. Bourdillon	<i>Methuen</i>	1945	16/-
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National Insurance and Assistance

Social Insurance and Allied Services (Beveridge Report)

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Annual Reports of the Assistance Board		<i>H.M.S.O.</i>		
National Insurance Bill, Summary of Main Provisions	<i>Cmd. 6729</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1946	6/-
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National Insurance in Britain		<i>C.O.I. R.1117</i>	June 47	

Health

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Rehabilitation Report, Scotland	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	April 46	6d.
Health Services in Britain	<i>C.O.I. R.1583</i>	Feb. 48	
Medical Services in Britain	<i>C.O.I. R.1237 (Basic Paper)</i>	Dec. 46	
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The Health of the School Child. Report of the Chief Medical Officer of the Ministry of Education for 1939-1945	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Jan. 48	2/6
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Education in Britain	<i>C.O.I. R.1197</i>	May 48	

Youth Service

Youth Organisations of Great Britain. D. Cooke	<i>Jordan & Sons</i>	1946	8/6
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Youth Services. A. E. Morgan	<i>Longmans Green</i>	1948	2/-
The Service of Youth Today. <i>Planning</i> . No. 280	<i>P.E.P.</i>	April 48	2/-
The Outlook for Youth Work. L. J. Barnes	<i>King George's Jubilee Trust</i>	1948	3/6
Youth in Britain—Today	<i>N.C.S.S.</i>	1948	
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(See also above under <i>Education</i> for H.M.S.O. reports on Youth Service.)			

Housing

Housing Returns for England and Wales	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>		9d.
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Rent Control in England and Wales	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	July 46	3d.
Furnished Houses (Rent Control) Act, 1946	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Mar. 46	2d.
Bulletin of the Housing Centre, monthly			£1 p.a.
Britain's Housing Problem	<i>C.O.I. R.1598</i>	June 48	
Housing	<i>C.O.I. R.882</i>	Dec. 44	

IV

Inland Transport

Transport Act, 1947	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Sept. 47	3/-
London Passenger Transport Board 14th Annual Report and Accounts	<i>L.P.T.B.</i>	Mar. 48	1/-
Nationalisation in Britain (Transport)	<i>C.O.I. R1563</i>	Jan. 48	

Shipping and Shipbuilding

Shipbuilding and Ships	<i>Worshipful Company of Shipwrights</i>	1947	12/6
Achievement in British Shipbuilding	A. C. Hardy <i>Pilot Press</i>	1942	2/6
A History of the Merchant Navy.	A. Moyse-Bartlett <i>Harrap</i>	1937	5/-
Lloyd's Register of Shipping			
Build the Ships	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1946	1/-
Mercantile Navy List	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>		25/-
Merchant Shipping Act, 1948	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>		4d.

Civil Aviation

Civil Aviation Act, 1946	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Aug. 46	1/-
Preliminary Report of Special Advisory Committee on Private Flying	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Oct. 47	1/3
B.O.A.C. Annual Report and Statement of Account	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Nov. 48	1/-
B.E.A.C. Annual Report and Statement of Account	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Nov. 48	1/-
B.S.A.A.C. Annual Report and Statement of Account	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	Nov. 48	1/-

Cable and Wireless

Cable and Wireless Act, 1946

H.M.S.O. Nov. 46 2*d.***Broadcasting**

The B.B.C. Year Book

B.B.C. 1948 2/6**The Press**

British Newspapers and their Controllers. Camrose

Cassell July 47 8/6

Royal Commission on the Press. Minutes of evidence

*Cmd. paper published
serially beginning
June 47*9*d.*—2/—**V****Food Policy**

How Britain was Fed in Wartime

H.M.S.O. 1/—

Nutrition in Britain

C.O.I. R.875 Sept. 45**Agriculture**

Land at War

H.M.S.O. 1945 1/6

National Farm Survey of England and Wales

H.M.S.O. Aug. 46 2/—

Explanatory Memorandum on Agriculture Bill

Cmd. 6996 *H.M.S.O.* 1946 6*d.*

Agriculture Act

H.M.S.O. 1947 2/—

Agricultural Statistics 1939-44, United Kingdom—Part 1

H.M.S.O. 1947 1/—

Monthly Digest of Statistics

H.M.S.O. 2/6

Report of the Dept. of Dairy Husbandry to the Milk Marketing

Board on Artificial Insemination—Apr. 46—Mar. 47

Oct. 47

British Agriculture. L. Easterbrook. (British Life and Thought Series)

Longmans Green 1945 1/—

The Milk Marketing Board. R. A. Pepperall-Clare

1948 4/6

Farming and Mechanized Agriculture—(annual reference book)

ed. Sir George Stapledon

Todd Publishing Co.

21/—

Agriculture in Britain

C.O.I. R.1635 April 48

Agriculture and Rural Economy. Book List 58

National Book League 1946 6*d.***Forestry**

Post-war Forest Policy

Cmd. 6447 *H.M.S.O.* June 43 2/—

Post-war Forest Policy, Private Woodlands

Cmd. 6500 *H.M.S.O.* Jan. 44 2*d.*

Forestry (Careers for Men and Women) Ministry of Labour and National Service

H.M.S.O. 3*d.*

Forests and Forestry in Britain. W. L. Taylor

Crosby Lockwood and Sons Feb. 46 12/—

Annual Report of Forestry Commissioners for year ended Sept., 47

H.M.S.O. July 48 1/3

The Dedication of Woodlands

H.M.S.O. Feb. 48 1/—

Forestry in Britain

C.O.I. R.915 Nov. 45

Guides to National Forest Parks :—

Argyll

H.M.S.O. 1946 1/6

Forest of Dean

H.M.S.O. 1947 2/—

Snowdonia

H.M.S.O. 1948 2/6**Fisheries**

Fisheries in Wartime

H.M.S.O. July 46 1/6

Herring Industry Board's Twelfth Annual Report for year end

31st March, 1947

Cmd. 7284 *H.M.S.O.* Feb. 48 6*d.*

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